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The Week

DISPATCHES of Sunday and Monday brought us the first comments of the German press on President Wilson's message. They have to be taken for what they are worth. Censorship and Government control of newspapers in Germany have to be allowed for in what they are permitted to say. Their general tone is hostile enough. The old adjectives are furbished up for fresh application to Wilson. There is a tendency to describe America as the "real enemy" of Germany—the one, we suppose, upon which "hate" is to be concentrated, as it was, successively, upon Russia and France and England. Anyhow, "Anglo-Saxondom" receives some rude buffets by the German editors. One of them sets forth the lesson which the United States must learn. It is, says the *Kölnische Zeitung*, that "a strong monarchy in the heart of Europe means no danger for American democracy." Five years ago, most Americans would have agreed to that. They did not like German autocracy with militarism, but if the German people preferred it, we said that it was their own affair. And we did not dream of its being a direct or immediate peril to the United States. If all this has been changed by the war, it is not because of any alteration in the American view of monarchy in the abstract, but on account of what a particular monarch has done or attempted. The phrase "strong monarchy" is one that would have come trippingly from the tongue of Bismarck. But what would he have thought or said of some of the things which the strong monarch of Prussia is doing to-day to safeguard his power with his own people? The Iron Chancellor set his face against political concessions. They were only, in his opinion, a sop to revolutionists. He was even against granting the Prussian Constitution, artfully contrived as it was to retain real power in the hand of the Junkers. Yet to-day we have the spectacle of the German Chancellor pressing the bill for electoral reform in Prussia—a bill abolishing class voting, giving control of the Diet over to the people, and remodelling even the Herrenhaus so as to make it more democratic and more responsive to the popular will.

EVEN in war-time and partly as a war measure—even with the Chancellor's statement that he is but carrying out the pledge and wish of the King of Prussia—the bill causes remonstrance and meets with opposition. The spiritual children of Bismarck—Heydebrand, Westarp, and the other Bourbons of Prussia—protest that the step is one towards Parliamentary Government. The next thing to happen may be a fairer distribution of seats in the Reichstag, with responsibility of the Kaiser's Ministers to the Deputies, and that would be a most "unhappy" outlook for Germany. It is clear that in the minds of Prussian Junkers the reform of the electoral franchise in Prussia means that the "strong monarchy" will be shorn of a good part of its strength. When Napoleon III, in his talk with Bismarck just before the latter became head of the Prussian Ministry, warned of the danger of revolution if things were carried with too high a hand, Bismarck replied: "In Prussia, only the Kings make revolutions." There was historic truth in this. Early in the nineteenth century, the "Emancipation Edict" was granted by a Prussian monarch. It was said to have filled the people with such new hope and energy that, coming after the terrible defeat of Jena, it made the victory at Leipzig possible. Another King of Prussia conceded the Charter—much to Bismarck's disgust. There is warrant, therefore, for saying that reforms in Prussian political institutions proceed from the top down. This latest reform bill has the sanction of Wilhelm II, and has the appearance of being freely and graciously offered by him to his loving subjects. That it is not, everybody knows. On the contrary, it has been wrung from a reluctant monarch.

THE Mayor of Halifax addresses his appeal for between $20,000,000 and $25,000,000 to the Dominion, which has already made a preliminary appropriation of $1,000,000; but it should be answered more liberally here than by our northern neighbor, which has but one-fifteenth our population and is impoverished with three years of war. Gov. McCall has begun a campaign to raise $1,000,000 at once in Massachusetts; Mayor Thompson has appointed a committee to raise funds in Chicago; and these examples should be followed in other places. A resolution has been introduced in Congress for an appropriation of $5,000,000, and we may be sure that the American Red Cross is giving as liberally as its resources allow. The disaster comes at a time when the always slight boundary between ourselves and Canada ought to be practically invisible.

IS public opinion in Britain and France being deliberately prepared for the possibility of a German offensive on the main western front, or are the forebodings in London and Paris the natural reflex of a black week marked by the reverses at Cambrai, the renewed Teutonic pressure against Italy, the growth in submarine sinkings, the catastrophe at Halifax, and, overtopping all, the menace of a Russian separate peace? For the moment the safer conjecture is that anticipation is more gloomy than the facts. Sore trials may be in store for the Allied armies between the North Sea and the Swiss frontier, but the probabilities are that before the German effort of 1914 against Paris and the Channel is renewed the Teutonic pressure will be directed against weaker sections in the Allied front. Should the worst in Russia come to pass and the Teutonic armies on the eastern front be released for duty in the west, the great crisis of the war will, indeed, be at hand. But months will elapse before that eventuality arrives, if it ever does. Until the signs grow clearer it is not necessary to enter into a study of the chances of a successful Allied defensive in France and Belgium. We may be content with the single reflection that, just as the numerical superiority of the Allies in the west has failed to break the German defensive, so the advent of Germany's troops from the east will not establish the necessary superiority in numbers for the crushing of the main Allied front.

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THE little job of setting the President right has never been listed among appropriate activities of ex-Presidents, but the sage of Oyster Bay takes to it as one to the manner born. "It is empty unwisdom," he tells the diners at the Pennsylvania Society, "to give verbal encouragement to Rumania and Servia unless we go to war with Bulgaria. It is worse than folly to profess sympathy for Armenia unless we make war on Turkey." How the ears of Senator Lodge must have burned as these words fell upon them—Senator Lodge, the Colonel's eleventh-hour candidate for the Republican Presidential nomination last year, who rose in his place in the Capitol the other day, and, admitting that he thought we ought to include Bulgaria and Turkey in the declaration of war with Austria-Hungary, basely added that he thought also that it was wise to defer to the President in such a matter and ended by meekly voting for a declaration that mentioned Austria-Hungary only. Let him return to Washington with the true view of things: "Austria-Hungary and Turkey are not nations. They are racial tyrannies." Does Col. House know this? And is the country going to see all the statesmen of all parties at Washington standing by the President, instead of by an ex-President, without lifting its voice against so topsy-turvy an arrangement?

CONGRESSMAN FLOOD advanced fairly convincing reasons why the United States should not at present declare war on Bulgaria. There are no fronts on which Bulgarian and American troops will be likely to come into conflict in the near future. The Bulgarian Minister in Washington vouches for the fact that his country's soldiers are fighting only on what they (however mistakenly) regard their own borders. He also maintains that his countrymen harbor the friendliest feelings for America. To a much greater extent than will be generally believed, this is true. Most of the men now high in Bulgaria's councils, her Ministers and diplomats, are graduates of American schools in Turkey. Bulgaria of this generation is more or less American-educated. Hence the sincere regret with which the upper class would receive a declaration of war from us. Naturally, as against practical considerations, the Bulgarian Government will not allow sentiment to stand in its way. As a matter of fact, Bulgaria stands or falls with our chief enemy, Germany. But in the meantime, since no necessity drives us, it would be well to keep alive whatever good-will and kindly feeling still exist towards us among the Bulgarian people.

TURKEY presents a somewhat different aspect. Our Government, in refraining from a declaration of war on the Ottoman Empire, is actuated less by any consideration for the ruling Turks than for the unhappy peoples they misgovern. Mr. Flood spoke of the twenty million dollars invested by American missionary societies in Turkey which would be lost as soon as we declared war. Unfortunately, Mr. Flood put the case hindforemost. He should have said that it would be the oppressed Armenian, Greek, Arab, and Turkish populations which would lose this American investment, an investment devoted entirely to their education and aid. The Turkish Government would at once destroy the usefulness of these centres of civilization and enlightenment. Moreover, our going to war with Turkey would cut off instantly the relief we are sending to the hundreds of thousands of starving people in the Empire, and would doom them to a miserable death. The avenues by which our help can reach this calamity-ridden land must therefore be kept open as long as possible, lest, before the war has ended, the chief elements on which a hope for Turkey's future can be built may be wiped out by starvation and disease.

THE Cossack counter-revolution in southern Russia, denounced by the Bolshevik Government, may be as formidable as the Leninite proclamation makes it out. But it is impossible to overlook the fact that the Bolshevik summons to a war of defence for the revolution against the Cossacks and the Milyukovs, the Rodziankos, the Gutchkovs, was issued on the eve of the day set for the meeting of the Constituent Assembly. Taken in conjunction with the arrest of the committee which has been in charge of the creation of the Constituent, the Bolshevik call for strong measures against counter-revolution savored strongly of an attempt to intimidate the Constitutional Convention or a preliminary step towards its postponement. The voting for delegates showed that while the Bolsheviki might be the strongest party in the convention, they were by no means assured of a majority, and certainly not of so overwhelming a majority as would enable them to put through their drastic internal policies without opposition. When one reads of Lenine's edicts against the entire existing social system, the impression arises that the "bourgeois" no longer exist in Russia. This impression disappears when we hear of the party of the Milyukovs and Rodziankos polling 200,000 votes in the very citadel of Bolshevikism, namely, Petrograd. Very definitely Lenine and Trotzky are heading towards the "dictatorship of the proletariat."

THOSE have been long and complicated campaigns which have resulted in the clearing of Germans from their last colony, East Africa. Over a territory as large as Germany and France combined, and in great part a trackless wilderness, the fighting has swayed. The first German invasion of South Africa and its repulse by Smuts; the forced internment of 15,000 German and native troops in Spanish Guinea; the destruction of the Königsberg in the Rufigi River by British monitors; the succession of sharp little defeats suffered by the Germans west of Kilimanjaro; the subsequent fall of the coast cities of Tanga and Dar-es-Saalam, were the landmarks in the steady erasure of German authority from the map of eastern Africa. At the beginning of this year the Germans were in control still of about one-fourth of the colony, and were no negligible fighting quantity. The credit for the operations which steadily reduced their personnel and equipment belongs to Gen. Van Deventer. Though East Africa is now wholly in British hands, some German belligerents remain in Portuguese Mozambique.

GEN. LUDENDORFF on U-boat warfare and the entry of America into the war shows scarcely a grain more of humor than his Imperial master did when speaking of Britain's military participation in the conflict. America's negligible aid to the Entente is completely offset by the general effect on England of the submarine campaign, which quite comes up to expectations. A scarcity of coal-pit props in English mines has caused a corresponding scarcity of coal in Italy and, he might have added, in France. All the boasts, then, in the early part of this year that England

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would be starved, on her knees, within a month, two months, or at most six months—all depending on whether the Grand Admiral, the Chief of Staff, or Hollweg was making the estimate—were made for psychological effect. Nobody who knew really believed them. The real object was to knock the coal props from under England.

THE country is roughly familiar with the remarkably impressive facts given by Secretary Daniels to show the increase in size and efficiency of the navy under war pressure; an increase in part traceable as far back as the act of August, 1916, providing for a huge three years' building programme and an immediate increase in personnel. With 270,000 officers and men, as against about 70,000 in January, 1917; 60,000 civil employees, as against about 35,000; about 1,000 commissioned ships, against about 300; a marine corps of 30,000 men, as against 10,000; and an average monthly expenditure of $60,000,000, as against $8,000,000, the Secretary has an immense material expansion to describe. Special interest attaches to his emphatic repetition of belief that promotion should be upon the merit system, and that the "fetich" of seniority should be abandoned from ensign to admiral, coupled with a recommendation that the selective system be extended to staff as well as line. The chief complaint against the act of August, 1916, in the navy centred upon its provisions for promotion by selection, some officers being emphatically opposed, some approving, and others demanding more careful methods of choice; but the Secretary is determined to carry through the principle.

FINLAND'S appeal to the Scandinavian countries for food concerns us also. Her Government has sent a commissioner to solicit our aid in saving multitudes of its citizens from starvation. To the objection that any food that we sent might fall into enemy hands, the explanation is made that it is intended to ship such supplies to the Norwegian port of Narvik, whence they are to be carried across Sweden by rail to the Finnish port of Karungi, the process to be under American supervision. The flour required for Finland was bought and paid for some time ago, it is added, but was commandeered by Mr. Hoover, so that the immediate question is of obtaining, not food, but a license for shipping it. Naturally, these alleged facts must be verified before we take any action, but in view of the pressing necessities reported from Finland with Finnish food-commissions issuing appeals, such verification ought to be made promptly and whatever we can do be done at once.

SECRETARY HOUSTON'S annual report, published last Friday, supports Mr. Hoover in his contention that more emphasis must be laid upon the rapid production of meat. His figures for the present condition, admittedly not precise, are partly encouraging and partly discouraging. The number of beef cattle in the United States, which after a long decline swung upward in 1913, still advances: there are 43,300,000 now, as against 40,850,000 a year ago, and only a little over 36,000,000 in 1913. This is all we could expect, but we must remember that beef had become scarce when the decline was stopped four years ago, and that the European war has aggravated the scarcity. Sheep still decline, the estimate being for 46,060,000 this year, as against nearly 48,500,000 a year ago and nearly 51,500,000 in 1913; the Government must continue its efforts to encourage the growing of sheep on small farms as well as the Western ranges. There has been a decline in the number of hogs, representing a fluctuation due to the high price of corn, and, we must hope, only temporarily marring the increase which has been fairly steady for years.

THE annual report of the Secretary of the Interior is a vigorous and sanguine blast by an official in close touch with the core of the nation. Mr. Lane is less interested in military operations than in the work carried on at home, of supply, manufacture, and preparation. From this point of view he, for one, will not admit that a democracy, such as ours, must necessarily be incompetent to wage war. In the present crisis, which calls for greatly increased production from the nation, he sees only the intensification of a process that has been going on for more than forty years. "If, indeed," he says, "for the past forty years this nation had been planning to make war upon its neighbors, and to seize upon the continent, what more would have been done to make resources available for such an adventure? . . . Modern industrialism may be epitomized as power plus iron. . . . It sounds almost boastful to say that the most paternal of governments, intent upon dynastic purpose, would hardly have found ways and means to supply itself more liberally with the fundamentals of the great war industries than has been effected by the quiet searching and working of this free people." From the farmer, the oil driller, and miner to the engineer, the chemist, and manufacturer Secretary Lane finds the country well equipped to carry on war by a generation of peace.

POSTMASTER-GENERAL BURLESON does well to hammer away at the extension of the merit system in the postal service. The principle having been accepted and applied so generally, the logic of the situation demands the inclusion of the officials he names: the Presidential postmasters, the Assistant Postmasters-General, and the purchasing agent of the Department. The recent scandals in connection with the appointing of new postmasters at the largest two cities in the country enforce the renewed recommendation, although the truckling to New York and Chicago politicians touched a higher position than that of Postmaster-General. Of the same good sense are his observations regarding post-office buildings. Not content with striking broadly at the pork barrel, he meets any demand for specific rules of procedure by suggesting that a building be erected only for offices the rental of which amounts to $1,000 or more and the receipts of which are $15,000 or the population served is as much as 5,000. Lovers of the log-rolling method will not take kindly to such definite figures, but the adoption of them would be a simple and logical way of cutting off an extravagance that has long disgraced us.

TESTIMONY that the wheatless and meatless days have been effective, and exhortation to maintain the observance of them, are joined in Mr. Hoover's indignant rejoinder to reports that certain Middle Western people think they impose an unnecessary sacrifice. He calls these statements either malicious or interested, and the live-stock associations and packers to whom they are ascribed will probably wince more under the latter term. Some Chicagoans have observed that beef and mutton stocks are accumulating in the coolers; Mr. Hoover admits that the meatless days

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are for the first time giving us a surplus, but states that it is a surplus only partially sufficient to meet Allied needs. As for wheat, we have already exported our small surplus above normal demands, and the amount we can add to these exports depends on the amount economized at home.

CALIFORNIA fruit-growers want more labor, and they don't mind if that labor is Chinese! This is the news that comes from the State which in days past has been willing to bring the country to the verge of war in order to make the exclusion of Oriental labor from its farms and vineyards absolute. At the annual meeting of the California fruit-growers at Sacramento, a resolution was passed urging the Federal Government to "permit the introduction of sufficient Chinese or other farm labor." Naturally, this was advocated only as "a war measure," and there was talk of the ease with which the Chinese could be "deported" after the emergency had passed. But all this does not disguise the fact that California is ready to abandon its old position of furious opposition to the immigration of Chinese laborers—and presumably of Japanese also—when even a temporary self-interest dictates that course.

THE unexampled heat of the Canadian campaign is attested by the riot at Kitchener, Ont., followed by the City Council's refusal to offer apologies to Premier Borden for the breaking up of his meeting; similar disturbances when Cabinet Ministers have tried to speak in Montreal, and the growing bitterness between extremist elements of Quebec and of the English provinces. The Government is so dissatisfied with the workings of the conscription machinery in Quebec that it has accused "a large number of exemption tribunals" of granting "exemptions in a very large number of cases where no justification for exemptions exists," and has seen to the filing of more than 5,000 appeals in Quebec city and Montreal. This and the weak response to the Victory Loan campaign throughout Quebec have pointed fresh quarrels between those who assert that the French are disloyal and those defenders of the French who have another definition of loyalty. No more dramatic contest has ever occurred in Canada. Balloting began among the Canadian troops in France several days ago; polls are to be set up in New York, Boston, and other American cities; preparations are being made to receive the first votes of certain classes of women and of Indians; and campaigning has become furious, especially in the most disputed province, Ontario.

ANOTHER significant academic report announces that the dining halls of Harvard, Yale, and Princeton are all losing money. Despairing housewives will take comfort in the fact that, although Harvard charged $5.50 a week and the others more than $6, the deficit of the first last year was $15,000, and of the other two more than $12,000 each. The report on the situation made by Treasurer Day, of Yale, is expected to bear fruit (it is said) in the elimination of fruit from the bill-of-fare; or perhaps it will be possible to say that the greedy students get their deserts in being deprived of dessert. At Yale, a total deficit for several years of $51,000 would show that the students have literally been eating into the University's resources. Of this sum no less than $16,500 represents bills owed by students and former students, which veteran landladies will wish the University a sweet time in collecting.

The War at the Moral Judgment-Seat

PRESIDENT WILSON might complain that his address to Congress had been covered with contradictory praise. It pleased Lord Northcliffe, but it also delighted Lord Lansdowne. It heartened the Tory *Morning Post*, but it likewise cheered the Radical *Daily News*. It won a deep "Amen" from Theodore Roosevelt, but had the tribute of another one from Scott Nearing. Does this prove that the message was as comprehensive as the truth, so that differing souls might find their own in it? It does not greatly matter. The thing of really high significance is the almost universal acceptance of the President's moral point of view. In all the heaped-up comment from France and Italy and South America, this is the unifying conception. Mr. Wilson so stated the right attitude towards the war and, in the main, towards the peace that must follow it as to command the assent of the most diverse minds, and to erect a sort of world-tribunal before which all the belligerents must stand and have their motives and their acts sifted.

From such a test the champions of the Allied cause need not shrink. Compared with their German adversaries, they are thrice-armed in justice. This is not to say that Germany is all black and her enemies all white. It is not to assert an exclusive German responsibility for the war—the Russian General Staff was not blameless—or to affirm that all the misdeeds, all the diplomatic intrigue, and the unholy bargaining, of the war had their inspiration and guilt in Berlin. But the original indictment of the rulers of Austria and Germany as those who sent the ultimatum that caused the war, who first took the aggressive, and who violated territory which they were sworn to respect, stands very much as it did in August, 1914. No subsequent revelations or palliations contain anything that can be pleaded in arrest of judgment upon the criminal provokers of the war. This fundamental fact must never be lost sight of. It is not a question of "punishment." No adequate punishment, in the strict and retributive sense, could possibly be inflicted upon those responsible for this war. Nor could they be reached by visiting death and destruction upon their subjects. The world is swinging round to President Wilson's position that there should be nothing "vindictive" in the terms of peace to be insisted upon. But this does not mean that our moral standards should be surrendered; nor that the indignation at a wanton plunging of the world into the flames, and at the cruel wrongs done to the men and women and children of Belgium and France, should at any time cease to burn in our hearts. We do not cry for vengeance. But we do crave justice. It is not a man of war, it is a Catholic prelate, the intrepid Cardinal Mercier, who declared that the desire to see great public criminals brought to justice is of the very essence of the Christian religion. It certainly is of the essence of the Allied cause, to which the conviction of right on its side is worth more than an army with banners.

It is only a hasty reading of history, or of the ways of Providence, which would conclude that the better cause must surely and quickly win. The world has too often seen iniquity triumph, and right on the scaffold. There is an element of truth in the saying that God is on the side of the stronger battalions. For that matter, Germany's course has been such as to arouse the stronger battalions against

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her. On a purely military trial of strength, she appears the weaker. Those who are warring against her have no occasion to despond even if it all came down to a question of men and money and guns and ships. They that be with us are more than they that be with them. But what animates and propels the physical strength at the disposal of the Allies is the knowledge, of which fresh tokens come to them every day, that they have the approval of the moral judgment of mankind.

Confirmation of this fact is the most gratifying thing in the echoes which President Wilson's message has waked round the earth. To the high moral note which he struck there is general response. He again disclaimed for America every thought of conquest or gain. He left the door wide open for peace, but pointed with inexorable finger to the conditions upon which alone the Teutonic Powers could enter it. They must relinquish their booty. They must repair their wreckage. They must agree to undertake to do full and impartial justice to all nations, great and small. This is the position of the President which the world is acclaiming. It is this kind of moral gravitation which is drawing support for the enemies of Germany from the ends of the earth. Before the international judgment-seat the German Government has been brought face to face with the serene and all-judging conscience of the whole world, and has been tried and condemned. This is the fatal German handicap. This is the chief asset of those who have taken the sword against the Kaiser.

President Wilson's address to Congress was not closely knit. It covered many topics, giving the impression of having been written in sections, frequently revised. and put together with the joints showing here and there. All the more reason, then, for singling out the "objectives," to use his own phrase, which he had in mind. These are manifold, but the chief ones may be analyzed as follows:

(1.) The President sought to make a direct impression upon Congress and the country. He desired both to emphasize and to promote the unity and strength of the nation in the prosecution of the war. In this there was a suspicion of rhetorical over-strain, but that is the way of orators. Mr. Wilson frankly admits that there is not entire agreement in this country. But he would either ignore or overbear it. The first part of his message is devoted to the thesis that this nation is "united in spirit and intention," and that "every power and resource we possess" will be freely given to the winning of the war. Mr. Wilson is a sufficiently skilled rhetorician and a statesman astute enough to know that one good way of bringing about what he wants is stoutly to assert that it already exists.

(2.) Another purpose of the message was to speak a word to the Allies. The President does not call them our allies. To him, they are merely "our associates." This is correct and also highly suggestive. The hand of this nation is free. Our Government is at liberty to say what it thinks without waiting to hear from Paris or London. And President Wilson says several things which were plainly meant for Allied reading. Ample coöperation, hearty support, from America he promises, but he adds something which has not entered into the hearts of all Allied statesmen: "the war shall not end in vindictive action of any kind"; "no nation or people shall be robbed or punished because the irresponsible rulers of a single country have themselves done deep and abominable wrong"; "the wrongs committed in this war . . . cannot and must not be righted by the commission of similar wrongs against Germany and her allies." These words were plainly intended for fireside reading in Downing Street and the Quai d'Orsay.

(3.) Austria is another objective with the President. He apparently believes that she is the weakest member of the Teutonic Alliance. Mr. Wilson no doubt has fuller information than the public of the exhaustion of Austria-Hungary, and of that Empire's intense desire for an early peace. By now making her rulers sensible that they cannot longer avoid responsibility for their subservience to Germany, that if they go on in submissive alliance with Prussian militarism they will be warred on by its enemies, we presume that the President hopes to augment the pressure for peace which has already been so strongly exerted at Vienna. This would be consistent with Mr. Wilson's declaration that this country has no thought of fighting for the dismemberment of the Austrian Empire. On this point, at least, he does not follow M. Chéradame; as on it he breaks with Mr. Roosevelt.

(4.) Much in the President's address was obviously intended for Germany. To Prussian pretensions and intrigue Mr. Wilson opposes a bold front. He tells the Hohenzollerns what they "must" do. He notifies them of what the United States will "never" consent to in the plans and demands of the German Government. But this firm and even threatening attitude towards the German rulers, the President unites with a direct appeal to the German people. Their independence is not assailed. Their future, political and economic, is in their own hands. They have but to get a Government that will renounce conquests, repair the inconceivable injustices done, submit to the judgment of the whole world, and they will be admitted, unfettered, into the partnership of nations. Nor does Mr. Wilson omit to tell them plainly what will befall them if they go on placidly subjecting themselves to "ambitious and intriguing masters interested to disturb the peace of the world."

(5.) Greatest of all the President's objectives is that of stating the aims of the war and thus showing how peace can be made. This is not done explicitly in any single passage of his message. It is, rather, subtly interwoven throughout it. We agree with the opinion—already reflected back from England—that President Wilson was as clearly bent as Lord Lansdowne upon restating war-aims so as to make it easier for Germany to seek peace. But the American President did it infinitely better than the British statesman. He did it without a suspicion of despondency or war-weariness. Spokesman for a fresh and proud country of unmatched resources, ready to give its all for what it believes in, he based his peace terms at once upon our national disinterestedness and our national ideals. And it is simple truth to say that Mr. Wilson is more specific, at the same time that he is more generous, than Lord Lansdowne or Mr. Asquith or Lloyd George. What must be exacted he does not conceal. Belgium to be freed and restored; Northern France to be given up; every forcible annexation of conquered territory to be relinquished. These are the absolute minima. And the President beckons the whole world on to a new era in which popular rule shall be more pervasive than ever before, and in which the intercourse and friendly rivalries of nations shall have free course because made secure by new sanctions of public law and strengthened impulses of humanity. Perhaps later on he will find time and oppor-

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tunity to state the terms he desires even more exactly, so that the Germans will have not the slightest excuse for alleging doubts on any point and can then only refuse them at their complete peril.

The Treasury Report and War Finance

THE Secretary of the Treasury's annual report, submitted to Congress last week, contained much information in regard to what had been done in the Government's war finance. Its detailed summary of the war loan subscriptions could add little to what was already known, but it completed the record up to date. Some important particulars were set forth concerning the formal arrangements in our loans to the Allies, and the character of their own securities deposited in exchange.

Our present partial embargo on gold exports from the United States was briefly explained, and it was stated that negotiations were under way "having for their purpose the substitution of arrangements which, while avoiding the necessity for large exports of gold, would yet stabilize the exchanges between the United States and neutral countries." The neutral Governments have "entered on these negotiations in a cordial spirit of coöperation"; but nothing was said as to what the proposals are. The work of the Federal Reserve Banks was briefly reviewed.

From these sections of the report, the public will get a clear idea of the numerous financial policies, measures, and expedients which the war has necessitated. Yet we suspect that most thoughtful men will complete their reading of the report with a sense of disappointment. From first to last the note of leadership, of broad-minded study of the country's financial problems, of suggestion for new financial legislation and forecast regarding the financial future, is absent. If it be said that preparation of the revnue bill is in the hands of Congress, the answer is that the proceedings of the last session showed a most urgent need of strong and intelligent initiative from outside its own doors. If it be objected that no official sagacity could be expected to see far into the obscure economic future, it is sufficient to say that the legislation of the present session must be based on some kind of theory as to financial conditions as they will exist a year from now. We need only point to the strong and lucid treatment of these very questions by Secretary Chase, in a year of such financial uncertainty as 1863. It is hard to imagine Secretary Sherman or Secretary McCulloch or Secretary Fairchild or Secretary Gage dealing otherwise, in a Treasury report, with the problems which exist to-day.

Mr. McAdoo's report contains, for instance, no discussion of the possibilities of an intelligent budget system, whereby the delay, confusion, and misunderstandings of the past session's revenue legislation may hereafter be avoided. Even the President's reference to this question in his message confines itself to suggesting a single appropriations committee—which would doubtless help, but would not solve the problem of intelligent action on the war taxation. The Secretary does indeed state it as his conviction that the country "should be permitted to readjust itself to the new revenue laws before consideration should be given to the imposition of additional tax burdens," and expresses his belief that bonds can be sold on such reasonable terms that we may "escape additional revenue legislation at this session."

We regard this position as sound; but the report ought surely to have gone further into the question. That "we cannot regard without concern serious declines in the general value of fixed investments" is unquestionably true; yet the Secretary's statement would have been vastly more effective if he had clearly explained the reaction of ill-distributed taxation on the general investment fund, and the reaction of needless disturbance, of the kind referred to, on the Government's own financial plans. Mr. McAdoo suggests that "some form of regulation of new capital expenditures [meaning new security issues other than Government war loans] should be provided." He intimates that suggestions to that effect may be submitted to Congress later. But this by no means attacks the evil of ill-distributed taxation at its source.

So of the loans to our allies. The report states that in granting these large credits—which are shown to have amounted to $3,131,400,000 up to November 1, and for which about $500,000,000 per month will be required hereafter—the Secretary's judgment "has been determined very largely by what was represented to him as the actual necessities for the purchase of supplies and materials and other requirements in carrying on the war." It is possible that these were indispensable war needs of our allies. But, without in the least doubting the wisdom of financing our allies to the full extent of our national ability, it is surely right to inquire also into the scope of our own economic capacity in the task. There may be some limit to our power of efficiently providing for foreign needs as well as our own—especially if we are financing "other requirements" as well as "purchase of supplies and materials."

All things considered, however, the Treasury report is a faithful picture of a period of immense financial achievement, and of an adaptation of our national resources to financing the war which has been efficient as well as disinterested and courageous. Mistakes may have been made; there were certainly some grave mistakes in the revenue legislation. But it is not too late to correct them.

The Government and the Railways

THE confusion of mind on the Stock Exchange and elsewhere regarding the Interstate Commission's proposal for the railways, was caused partly by the unexpected nature of the recommendations and partly by misunderstanding of their purport. They deal with a situation which had already occasioned plain official intimations that the great east-and-west-bound trunk lines, at any rate, must be operated as a single system. In some respects, but not in all, that situation does not differ from the conditions which have arisen at more or less frequent intervals in busy autumn seasons of the past.

The "freight blockade" has resulted on such occasions from the fact that the movement of a large grain harvest to the seaboard coincided with great increase in the movement of all other kinds of merchandise. It was usually an incident of periods when, as so often happened in this country, a season of trade reaction was suddenly followed by revival of trade activity and prosperity which caught the

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railways inadequately prepared with rolling stock and motive power. But in the present instance the congestion was made a much more serious matter, first by the very urgent demand of Europe for the foodstuffs and munitions produced in the interior, and secondly by our own Government's large requirements of war munitions and ships, with the resultant additional demand for transportation of raw material to the mills and of the finished products to the points of delivery. Delay in any of these deliveries, such as freight blockades would cause, would gravely handicap the war plans.

The nature of this situation must be understood in order to understand the sweeping recommendations of the Interstate Commission. The Commission recognizes the rightfulness of the request for higher railway rates in view of the rapidly mounting cost of operation, but it recognizes also that such increase in rates will not solve the whole dilemma. Therefore it urges that all railway facilities must be "unified" and "mobilized." This simply means that a central authority shall be established, under whose direction the freight offered for shipment shall be allotted to the railway best able at the moment to transport it and deliver it quickly. A shipper of merchandise might prefer to send his goods by a given railway; but if that railway's tracks are already overcrowded and its terminals congested, then the shipment must be arbitrarily diverted to another road whose facilities are in better shape. Carried to its full extent, this rearrangement of traffic might logically go so far as to withdraw one class of business—grain, for instance—entirely from one road and distribute it to others.

This re-distribution process might be effected under the united management of the railway officers themselves, or it might be done in exercise of the Government's war powers, through the assumption of governmental control over all the railways. The second recourse would not mean Government ownership; it would not even involve operation by Government bureaus or officials. In England, where a similar plan was adopted early in the war, the railways are still conducted by their former managements, but those managements are subject to the orders of one supreme chief who represents the Government.

If, on the other hand, the process of unification were left in the hands of a joint committee of the managers, without direct control by Government, then, as the Commission points out, it would be necessary to suspend the Federal statutes prohibiting railway combinations. For the "pooling" of railway facilities in this manner would clearly be a combination of parallel and competing lines, and, in theory at least, it would amount to suppressing competition.

These proposals of the Commission, especially that in regard to the Anti-Trust law, have led at once to some very loose editorial talk of its belated repudiation of the principles of restriction. We are even told that, since what is good for the railways and the country in war must be good in peace, therefore the whole body of restrictive interstate commerce statutes ought to be swept away forever. It is not difficult to imagine that, if such a proposal were to be seriously made, the railway managers would be the first to protest against it. They at least are aware that the law which restricted combination was supplemented by the law which prevented the old-time "cut-throat competition" such as repeatedly threatened ruin to the railway industry in the "unrestricted" days.

The intelligent man will also surely perceive that adoption of a drastic expedient because of war conditions does not prove the desirability of perpetuating it on return of peace. To concede that principle would be to assume that the fixing of maximum prices for steel, iron, and copper, and the guaranteeing by the Government of a minimum price to the farmer for the next season's wheat crop, ought to be permanently embodied in our legislation. It is possible that we shall learn much from our war-time experiments in the grain and steel and railway industries which will lead to wholesome revision of policies in the future. But, in the one industry as in the others, what is now being done or proposed has its basis, as the Interstate Commission points out, in the fullest utilization of our industrial resources for the national defence; which wholly supersedes, in the railways' case, the peace-time "protection of the shipper and the public against unjust or unfair treatment by the carrier."

Congress will have to choose between the alternative of unified administration by the private managements, with the "anti-combine laws" suspended for the railways, and administration under direct governmental control. We do not hesitate to say that, until it can be shown to be less advantageous or less efficient in achieving the paramount war-time purposes, the private administration is far more in consonance with American traditions.

Houdon and a Modern Instance

HISTORY seldom repeats itself; but sometimes it amuses itself by making analogies. In 1785 Houdon, the great French sculptor, the Rodin of his day, came across the ocean, at behest of the Virginia Legislature, persuaded thereto by Jefferson and Franklin, then in Paris, and made a portrait statue of Washington. Most of us, seeing only the completed work, are inclined to forget the things Houdon purposely overlooked in his sitter. Fresh from the cultured land of France, he chose to see in the Father of His Country only the serene Olympian and perfect gentleman, demigod of an orderly and successful revolution. Yet Washington, like Lincoln, was, in his time, something of a frontier character, and could employ, on occasion, very strong and undiluted language, and his hands—and it may be presumed also his feet—were, says Lafayette, the largest ever seen on any human being. If Houdon had been Barnard in temperament, what a representation of the rude man of power, the primitive power of an elemental people, we might have had! But the men of those days supposed that internal power need not necessarily show itself in externals. Houdon came over with his various implements and took accurate measurement of Washington and a model of his features, and then went back to Paris and made the statue of the great gentleman in the Richmond State House, who is not the less a leader of men by reason of his perfect grace and dignity.

We are fortunate in having a bit of contemporary information of how Washington himself felt on this whole subject of his statue. Lincoln could not have been more self-effacing and modest. There was a prevailing fashion in sculpture of the time which ordained that public men should be portrayed in classic garb. The Father of His Country wrote to Jefferson:

> In answer to your obliging inquiries respecting the dress, attitude, etc., which I would wish to have given to the statue in question, I have only to observe that, not having sufficient knowledge in the art of sculpture to oppose my judgment to

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the taste of connoisseurs, I do not desire to dictate in the matter. On the contrary, I shall be perfectly satisfied with what may be judged decent and proper. I should even have scarcely ventured to suggest that perhaps a servile adherence to the garb of antiquity might not be altogether expedient, as some little deviation in favor of the modern costume, if I had not learnt from Colonel Humphreys that this was a circumstance hinted in the conversation by Mr. West to Mr. Houdon——

He was perfectly willing to appear before posterity in a toga and powdered hair, if the experts thought best. Distinctly, he did not have that layman's formula by heart, of knowing what he liked, whether it was good art or not. Fortunately, in this instance, he had put himself into the most trustworthy hands. Both Jefferson and Franklin had an equal confidence in Houdon and were determined that he should be hampered neither in money matters nor in facilities. "There is no question," writes Jefferson from Paris, "as to the sculptor who should be employed; the reputation of Monsieur Houdon of this city being unrivalled in Europe. He is resorted to for the statues of most of the sovereigns in Europe . . ." And "Monsieur Houdon . . . was so anxious to be the person who should hand down the figure of the General to future ages, that without hesitating a moment he offered to abandon his business here; to leave the statues of kings unfinished, and go to America."

Happy age that could produce so perfect a combination, an immortal hero, an artist worthy to commemorate him, and a public able to appreciate the artist's work! Washington has been fixed for posterity. No Bolshevik sculptor of future times will be able to represent him, according to later economic theories, as the arrogant leader of the capitalists of his time; no "young Washington," exhibiting him as a great splay-footed, raw-boned, long-legged frontiersman, will ever get a grip on the popular imagination. That calm, graceful, but commanding figure will withstand all the raids of all the fads that Time can muster against it, and not lose one whit of dignity. Lincoln was not so fortunate. His personality remains the plaything of every artist who wants to take a hack at him, and will remain so until a sculptor comes along of such calibre that he can efface from the public mind the more eccentric conceptions of lesser craftsmen. It is a pity that some of the people who are now spending so much money and energy on these replicas of the Barnard statue did not take time by the forelock and, following their ancestors' example, commission Rodin, the greatest French sculptor of our day, to make a portrait of Lincoln for London, Paris, and Washington. Unfortunately, that opportunity is now past beyond recall.

Meanwhile Americans, anxious to show their friendship for nations allied with us in the struggle for democracy, might give suitable expression to their sentiments and at the same time avoid a breach of the world's artistic peace if they had replicas made of this statue by Houdon and presented them to the nations in question. Modern experiments in realistic idealism seem only to lead to terrible casualties in a time when everybody already is sick of broken heads. Had Congress of more than one hundred years ago carried out its project of giving Houdon an order for an equestrian statue, then there would now be two masterpieces to choose from. But, as our forefathers were shortsighted, and perhaps somewhat strapped for funds, the second piece of sculpture was never executed, and so the equestrian Washington has been left to smaller souls, who have produced nothing worthy of replica in foreign capitals.

Roundabout Governments and Inter-Ally Councils

By STODDARD DEWEY

On his four, on his four dromedaries
Don Alfonso Alfalfa Olivarez
Rode the world over,
Living in clover,
——So would I, had I four dromedaries!

THIS classic quatuor of the Paris Latin Quarter has had more success than the four Ministers of State in the Cabinet of Prime Minister Painlevé. *Ca ne fiche rien,* "They're no use," came to be the opinion of the man in the street, and the opinion spread until the whole people made up its mind, and the Cabinet, too.

There's a light up in the window
And I think I'd better go!

That is how we come to have Prime Minister Clemenceau, who has somehow become a light to his people's feet amid the encircling gloom.

Every one acknowledges that Professor Painlevé was a clear-headed, hard-working War Minister, upholding generals under parliamentary difficulties, save for occasional weakness in face of the interference of civil authority, which Parliament brought him into office to uphold. This is another story, to be told only when History sheds sunlight on each case and affair of the war. Marcel Sembat, the elegant Socialist leader, prepared by his early Clerical education and his doctorate of laws, once tried his hand at being Minister, and the populace attribute to him the coal failure. Before the war he warned the French people, "Make a King or keep the peace!" It is hard to think of Clemenceau as King, and there is no other in the offing.

Marcel Sembat, like all other really French Socialists, while he wishes the world everlasting peace, wishes war to be kept up until it secures at least temporary peace. He is no "defeatist"—and yet, like the most Bourbon pacifist, learning nothing and forgetting nothing, he foretells that parliamentary politics will snuff out Prime Minister Clemenceau like a fuliginous candle before his light can shine to any effect among men.

In his long parliamentary career, Clemenceau has led the attack against more than two dozen Governments and upset some sixteen of them, finally overturning his own—but only, against all prognostication, after it counted among the longest-lived of the Third French Republic. King-regretters look for direction to Clemenceau, who declared famously that the French Revolution had to be accepted *en bloc,* whole and entire, or not at all; and Radical Socialists—hyphenated, for he said, "I am not a Collectivist Socialist"—look askance at him who invented them, because he sees clearly that this is no time to work for party predominance after war. Collectivists themselves may follow his light rather than tarry in the cloudy hope of keeping their Internationale together after the war. The one thing at a time, the first thing to be done, in the minds of all the French people, is to fight to the end of this enduring war.

The same may be said of Lloyd George's speech at a Paris table, but designed for London consumption. Public opinion was ripe for it among the French people. Their elementary arrival at conclusions is enough to nonplus

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office-holders muddling along their cut-and-dried lines of label and formula and routine. In a French port, where American engineer companies have been laying down much-needed docks, the country women and boys whose men have long since marched off to the war came crying: "What are you strong young men doing here? Why are you not fighting in the trenches?" So when members of the French Parliament ask the reason why, for the short English line, troops are massed ten to a yard while French soldiers have to hold a line no end longer under worse attacks with only three soldiers to a yard.

Now the Italian disaster has come to startle all into late recognition of the plain truth enounced in questionable form by Marcel Sembat—"Make a King!"—which, being interpreted by French and English and Americans, is, "Cease muddling and overlapping and fight as one!"

A civil and a military American are to be added to the Inter-Ally Council which is shortly to meet under the shadow of unity-loving Louis XIV, who said, "The State? it is I." Mr. Asquith seems to fear that the new Council, with American disregard of grammar, may declare, "The war? it is me!" The French are willing.

Let us think a little of after-war. What about the Allies and their Inter-Ally Council then? Their moneys will be so mixed and mingled that no separate Parliament or Congress will ever be able to find out which is which—this for French ragout or that for British roast-beef or that for American cornbread and baked beans. Men that eat each will have gone forth to their death with a martial tread by that time.

Shall not the Council continue among Allies who cannot help being such for untold years—unless all are to suffer defeat? Says Professor Seignobos, a pacifist—before the war: "Not this one or that one, but the whole world wishes the end of the war. But to wish the end of the war, is to wish it President-Wilson fashion—such that we can believe it dead for a long, long time."

Paris, November 20

The Monroe Doctrine and a League of Nations

By VISCOUNT BRYCE

[Presiding at a lecture delivered by Professor Pollard on the Monroe Doctrine at King's College, London, on November 7, Lord Bryce gave a crisp definition of the Doctrine and explained how the principle underlying it might be extended to form the basis of a League of Nations. As the speech was informal and received for that reason only fragmentary notice in the British press, Americans will be particularly interested in the following deliberate statement of his views on this question which Lord Bryce has prepared at our request.—Ed. The Nation.]

THE declaration of United States policy associated with the name of President Monroe, but really due to John Quincy Adams, and in some measure also to the suggestions of George Canning (then British Foreign Secretary), was originally delivered as announcing a restriction or limitation which America proposed to place on her own action. She would not interfere in the wars and alliances of the Old World and she expected that in return the states of the Old World would not interfere with the affairs of the Western Hemisphere. If they tried to introduce their political system into the New World they must expect her opposition. This declaration was aimed at the so-called Holy Alliance of Austria, Russia, and Prussia, which, having pledged itself to maintain autocratic government in the European continent, was contemplating interference in South America against the insurgent colonies of Spain. Another part of Monroe's declaration which referred to territorial aggression by European powers was apparently meant as a warning to Russia, which had advanced large territorial claims in the far Northwest.

The danger that any European power would try to found a new dominion in the Western Hemisphere has latterly seemed too remote to be worth regarding, but what we have recently learned of the far-reaching plans and hopes of the German Government makes it pretty clear that if they had come victorious out of this war, with a navy able to command the Atlantic, they would have endeavored to set up a dependent German state, or perhaps a province of the German Empire, in southern Brazil. This is a region of superb natural resources containing a very large population sprung from Germany, and still speaking German, though there is not the slightest reason to suppose that they desired to exchange their present freedom for the rule of the Prussian officer and the Prussian bureaucrat.

The United States, which would then have had to come to the rescue of Brazil, has fortunately already thrown herself into the conflict for justice, liberty, and the rights of the smaller peoples. Monroe's policy, which was also Washington's, of holding aloof from European complications was long maintained, and wisely maintained, by America, but the current of events has been too strong to make it possible to stand apart any longer. The whole world has now become one, and must remain one for the purposes of politics. No great nation can stand out.

Thus the Monroe Doctrine in its old form may seem to have disappeared; for the counterpart to the exclusion of the European Powers from interfering with the freedom of American states was the abstention of America from interference in European affairs. Yet what has really happened may turn out to be not a supersession of the Doctrine, but rather an extension of what was soundest in its principle. The action of the German Government in proclaiming a general submarine warfare was a threat to which no self-respecting nation could have submitted. It was addressed to the western nations as well as to those of Europe. It showed that there were dangers which involved all maritime powers alike and which western nations must join the European allies in combating. The unbridled ambition and the aggressive spirit of the German Government are compelling all the nations which love peace and law and freedom to come together to secure for themselves that which America, in proclaiming the Monroe Doctrine against the Holy Alliance, desired to secure for the western continent.

There is need to-day for a League of Nations which will endeavor to extend its protection to all the world and not to one continent only. In any such combination to secure justice and tranquillity based upon right, the presence of the United States would be invaluable and would indeed be necessary if the combination were to secure those blessings for the world.

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New Serbia and Its Problems

By MILIVOY S. STANOYEVICH

SERBIA, by her history and her position, is more than any other Balkan state predestined to take an active part in the collective life of the civilized world. Fate has placed her at the cross-roads of Asia and Europe. She was ruled by the Byzantine emperors and overrun by Tatars and Bulgars. Through the land of Nemanyich passed the crusaders of Frederick Barbarossa, and later on she was subverted and destroyed by the Mohammedan sultans. Since the time of Turkish decadence, she has been involved, directly or indirectly, in all the important events which have distracted the Balkan Peninsula. Her beautiful cities, Belgrade and Nish, are great gates of central Europe which open to the Levant. In consequence, Belgrade ("White Castle"), the capital of Serbia, has seen more battles than have most fortresses in Europe. Nish, the Roman Naissus, where Constantine the Great was born, is also a city of unusual commercial and strategic importance; it lies at the point where several of the Balkan high roads converge, and under its walls were fought innumerable battles by the Huns, Goths, Avars, Bulgars, Greeks, and Serbs.

Due to her geographical position, Serbia is an agricultural country whose soil gives the most unexpected crops, which abundantly supply the neighboring states. Her industry and commerce, though not yet highly developed, have the cool temerity to compete with the most cherished industries of other countries in the Balkan markets. Everywhere in southeastern Europe may be found her engineers, merchants, and travellers. Although narrow of territory and restricted as to population, Serbia has asserted herself in the domain of world relations. She has also distinguished herself by her passionate love of liberty; and her local life is of exceptional intensity. Desire for freedom has enabled Serbia, contrary to the wishes of her multifarious conquerors, to preserve her moral patrimony intact and to retain her individuality, to the great astonishment of those who have denied her independence and autonomy. In spite of what short-sighted Austrian politicians have thought, Serbia, or the newly proclaimed state of Jugoslavia, is not simply a geographical expression. She exists because her life is deeply rooted in the soil, and because of her exceptional position as at the joint meeting-place of three streams deriving from the depths of history—the Serb stream, the Croat stream, and the Slovene stream. Serbia is a microcosm, and must more and more strive to become the point of concentration for the reconciled Jugoslav fractions.

The recent Declaration of Jugoslav Independence issued at Corfu by the Serbian Government and the South Slavic Committee of London, is the first official and public act by which the South Slavic question discloses itself as an entity to the world of diplomacy. In England, France, and Russia this compact found a hearty echo. Premier Lloyd George, eulogizing Serbian heroism, recognizes that British honor is involved in the restoration and unification of the Serb race. "It is not merely a matter of honor, it is a matter of security, of civilization," he said. In fact Serbia is a Paladin at the gate of Mongol invasion. It is not yet the time to specify a definite form for the new state, but the Serbs are right in thinking of a final settlement based upon the principle of natural justice. The above mentioned compact enunciates the national and racial aspirations of the countries concerned. Like an ancient fresco whose beauty reappears when the panels are cleansed, so shall new Serbia be as described by this declaration.

To the Serbian Government as representative of Serbia proper, and the South Slavic Committee, as representative of Serbia *Irredenta*, the Corfu pact is a prelude to the constitution which will be framed and sanctioned later by the Constituent Assembly. The contractors of the declaration do not impose their will upon the people, but it is their duty, however, to bring Serbian problems before the world of politics. The Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes will be quite a new state, created neither by Serbia nor by the South Slavic Committee, but by the logic of events. It will comprise all the South Slavic provinces as equal units, and its final form of government will depend upon the general will of the people represented by the Constituent Assembly.

One might assert with certainty that the creation of Jugoslavia will be courted by the Entente Allies. Ever since the first Serbian victories the press of each of these powers has betrayed a desire to support their little ally. On the other hand, the Central Empires have irredeemably injured their standing among the Jugoslavs by their systematic opposition, and by the accumulated logic which Germany has exerted against the progress of Slavism. The uselessly exaggerated provocations of the Austrian and Hungarian authorities, in regard to the Serbo-Croats, induced the Serbian Government to adopt more and more easily a policy sympathetic to the Triple Entente, to which it furthermore came to attach its traditions. After the many invasions, devastations, persecutions, and massacres which have been perpetrated upon Slavic territory by the Hapsburg monarchy, there is no doubt that the newly created Jugoslavia will never again place her head upon the executioner's block.

As to Russia, she ought to profit from South Slav unity as a fructification of her own policy. Petrograd has never ceased sustaining its traditional maxim: "The Balkans for the Balkan people." The Slavs of the South ought to be willing to contribute something to the prosperity of great Russia without encroaching upon the rights of other races. It has been recently said that the Jugoslavs should be regarded as vassals of Russia. But to bring to light the bogie of "Panslavism" is to give a touch of fear especially to our English allies. It is absurd to speak of the Russian peril to the Balkans, first, because territorial and ethnic barriers obtrude themselves, and secondly, because the South Slavic states have not looked forward to becoming strong and independent in order to cast themselves anew into the hands of another power.

Finally, the ambition of the Serbs is to make a place for themselves in the West. Their natural rôle throughout history has been to constitute a barricade against the invasions from the Orient. In this connection, it ought to be insisted that Panslavism and Pangermanism are not in any sense comparable. Panslavism demands the emancipation of all the Slavs and those allied with them. Pangermanism means taking into conquest a series of lands which may prove useful to the expansion of political Germany, but which virtually have nothing German about them, viz., Poland, Bohemia, Istria. Panslavism seeks to advance the normal evolution of the people; Pangermanism attempts to strengthen Great Germany, in spite of all laws of evolution, and even in spite of the laws of humanity.

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Education and National Spirit

By CHARLES H. JUDD

THE cultivation of a nationalistic spirit has never been the chief aim of American schools. We, in this country, have been proud of our cosmopolitan tolerance. We have known somewhat vaguely that the ways of Europe are very different from ours in these matters. The German school is a place where much time and effort are dedicated to the specific task of making German children into stanch Germans. The French schools cultivate an intense loyalty for France. The Poles have kept alive in their schools the traditions of a nation even after the dismemberment of the empire; and so on through the list, including the Balkans. When these peoples come to America, they often unite in the demand that our schools, which seem to have no previous engagements, take up the European task of perpetuating the spirits of many nations. We have shown a jovial, good-natured attitude in the matter, have paid good public money for atrocious instruction in foreign languages in some of our urban elementary schools, and have rejoiced in the belief that our educational system is broad enough to include everything and assimilate everybody.

One reason for this American attitude is that our schools grew up as local institutions under local control. The various colonies had different attitudes in these matters. Virginia, with its great plantations, had no school of the type that was natural in the little homogeneous New England settlement. The New England settlements, while they were internally homogeneous, were not eager to submit their affairs to the adjudication of neighboring settlements. So it came about that education is with us a local affair. The Constitution and our Federal organization are non-committal on school matters.

All this is very different from the practice of Europe. There the Minister of Education is a powerful factor in the life of the nation. The schools are social institutions of major importance and are recognized as such. Local control is subordinated to central supervision, or, to use a phrase more appropriate in most cases, to central dictation.

It is not alone in governmental control that European schools show their devotion to nationalism. The subject-matter of class-room instruction is ultra-nationalistic. For example, the writer spent several months in the autumn of 1913 visiting the common schools of Germany—the *Volksschulen*. In the course of these visits he happened to go into nineteen geography lessons. Seventeen of them dealt with parts of Germany. Of the other two, one dealt with Holland and the other with Switzerland. During the same visits he heard twenty-four lessons in history, all devoted to German history. The latter example, taken by itself and referring, as it does, to strictly elementary schools, is not remarkable, but if one has ever heard a lesson in German history taught in a German *Volksschule*, one will have no difficulty in understanding the slight esteem for other peoples so characteristic of many an ordinary German citizen. Finally, one may refer to the fact that religion is taught four periods a week in every German school. It is taught with all the discriminations of type that belong to the family connections of the pupils. The Protestant gets his type; the Catholic, his; the Hebrews, if they can show sufficient numerical strength, get their type. But all types merge in the ideals of a state acceptable to Heaven, and as dangerous to those who are disloyal as death and complete damnation. One may take whatever attitude one will towards the results of this kind of teaching in German schools, but the result is as sure as human nature—the German schools have moulded the German mind into a rigid, nationalistic type.

The example of France is different and perhaps even more impressive. The geography of the French schools is, from the point of view of the American schoolmaster, narrow. The history of France is too varied to leave the pupil with a quiet confidence in any single overhead organization. In place of German religion, there is a secular course in morals. This course in morals deals with the social virtues, and with the wisdom of fair dealing in business. Much has been said and written in France, and among our American students of education, in praise of this course in civic morality. The highest praise that can be formulated in terms of present-day history is the story of French national loyalty in the crucial tests of the last three years. French nationalism is not stolid, but it is firm. It has in it much of the individualism of which we are proud in our own social scheme, but it exhibits a loyalty to the nation and a compact solidarity that we may well envy.

Of England I have not spoken up to this point. England before the war was more like ourselves than any European nation. England had allowed much of the educational policy of the country to be determined locally. To be sure, there is a minister of education, and a board of education at London with power of inspection, as they call it. There are parliamentary grants and a corresponding dictation as to what shall be done where grants are made. But contrasted with Germany or France or even Russia and the Balkans, the organization was loose.

Even before the war England saw that there must be reforms. As far back as 1902 she took a long step by assuming central control of all elementary schools to a degree unheard of in earlier days. This central control was tightening perceptibly in the years following 1912. Especially in physical training, a central policy was put through the schools with an iron hand. The central officer in charge of this training said that he had been called on to produce a nation fit to carry arms, and he was doing it. He was introducing the Swedish system in spite of local opposition, sending teachers and inspectors to Sweden to get first-hand training in the system. In the same spirit, the municipalities were organizing secondary schools and municipal universities of a type wholly different from the traditional institutions of like grade. These new institutions were designed in their organization and in their courses of study to furnish a more popular, a more useful, and hence a more democratic type of education.

In the spring of this year the gradual evolution which had been going on in the English schools for a decade and a half was forwarded by the introduction of a comprehensive parliamentary programme, and by the most liberal school grants that have ever been made. In the midst of her strenuous military struggles England will undoubtedly extend the period of elementary training, enlarge the equipment and course of instruction of her schools.

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Some time during the war or shortly thereafter America will discover its school system. There is evidence that already some of the foresighted propagandists of the nation have anticipated the rest of us in this matter. For example, about a generation ago, amid the execrations of the scientists and the scoffing of unbelievers, an organization of women decided to teach all the children of the United States that alcohol is injurious to the lining of the stomach, to the liver, to the bones and nervous system. It may be that they overdid it, but one thing is beginning to be certain—they did not underdo it. It is also evident that they selected a very strategic field for their operations.

A few years ago a group of men, wise in their generation, saw a national need, the need of skilled labor to compete with European skilled labor. The discovery once made, these men began an organized effort to secure industrial workers. They made progress by criticising our present schools and offering a substitute. Interestingly enough, they have secured for industrial education what we have never had for general education, a huge Federal appropriation and a Federal board of control. There sits in Washington to-day a board in charge of industrial education, and it is putting a new stamp on American education, while the common branches are managed by local authorities, and while foreign languages continue to be badly taught in many of our urban elementary schools because somebody from Europe wants it done for reasons nationalistic but not American.

Other examples of less comprehensive and less radical campaigns for the use of the schools could be cited. The teaching of health in schools has been prompted by anti-tuberculosis societies. All kinds of charities use the organization of the school to reach the homes of our people. Since the war began demand after demand has been made on the schools. The children have helped to sell Liberty Bonds and have obtained innumerable signatures on pledge cards. These are all indications that the schools are about to be universally recognized as institutions capable of rendering a real national service.

The purpose of this article is to call attention to another and distinctly educational undertaking which aims in an ambitious way to bring into the schools of the United States a body of material which is not limited to any narrow interests, but seeks to promote the broadest possible thinking about national life.

Under the authority of the President of the United States, the Bureau of Education and the Food Administration are coöperating in the publication of a series of lessons entitled "Lessons in Community and National Life." These lessons might have carried the somewhat more technical title "The Structure of Society." They consist in brief descriptions of typical social and industrial institutions. They are written in concrete terms which will give the pupils definite mental pictures of what is meant by such terms as community and nation.

For example, in one of the first series of lessons pupils in the intermediate grades are introduced to the evolution of a city water system. Could a child who has seen such a system grow be in any doubt about the meaning of the word "community"? Could the word "society" ever mean to such a child merely a church social or a dance? Another of the early lessons is on a city produce market. There is one on a cotton mill; one which depicts the various manufacturing activities of a self-sufficing colonial home.

The wonder about these lessons is that schoolbooks are not full of them. The fact is that American teachers have never realized that pupils need to be taught about the world in which they live. The school of earlier days did not teach about the life of the home or the life of the community, because these were supposed to be known to pupils from their contact with them. Year after year the situation has grown complex and pupils have lost contact with all industrial operations and with the complex social organization in which we have all come to be insignificant atoms. The social organization has outgrown the school. The course of study contents itself with the meagre lessons appropriate to a simpler and earlier day. In the meantime, life has moved to a higher level which requires a new mode of insight and a breadth of instruction wholly uncalled for in times past.

The national crisis brings with it a shock of realization. We see that we are as a nation ignorant of the scope and depth of our national life. We would not have it here as it is in Germany. We are right in saying that we will not limit our pupils to the geography of the United States though riotous anarchy results. We are sure that it is necessary for the human spirit to be broad. But if the ways of Germany are utterly abhorrent, may we not take counsel with France? There nationalism has been cultivated by a course in civic morality. Again, even in accepting this example we may contribute breadth. The study of all industry, the study of how men are housed and how public health is promoted, are no less teachings in morality than are the French maxims on honesty and loyalty.

The "Lessons in Community and National Life" do not make the mistake which has shipwrecked many an educational reform. They do not limit themselves to urgent exhortations to teachers and school boards to do "something" and then leave it to the new converts to carry out the hard labor of putting detail into the exhortations. The reformers of the past have often assumed that assent to a general principle is enough to produce a new course of study. Not so. The teachers of this country are as a class inexperienced in the broad national issues. They do not know industry and social organization even in theory. To ask them to make lessons in national life would be to demand bricks without supplying either straw or clay.

This is no time for mere exhortation. The lessons must be supplied in form to be put into the hands of pupils. This has been done. The lessons are reading lessons ready to be taken up by the pupils the moment they arrive from Washington. The question has been raised: Why does the Food Administration concern itself with such a project? To the mind that sees the present national situation in a broad way the explanation is easy. Any sacrifice which the people of this country make to-day must be the ready contribution of a democratic people, not the blind offering of a people schooled in obedience to a dictator. We have to work out a new type of instruction in nationalism. This new instruction must go into the schools, but it must express itself at once in practical ways. The habits of life and thought of the nation must respond at once to an intellectual apprehension of what the nation is and will become. Our nationalism must be intelligent and practical at once. There is no agency more concerned in this double programme than that agency which is making appeal after appeal to our people for loyal national action in conserving food. The joint action of the Food Administration and the Bureau of Education is a hopeful sign of a new type of nationalism in the schools.

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The whole matter is clearly set forth in the letter written by the President and addressed with the announcement of the lessons to the school officers of the country.

[As Professor Judd has made clear by his description of the system in Germany, there is grave danger in a policy which aims at Government control of ideas in the public schools. Narrowly conducted it might result in evils similar to those manifest in Germany. If it is directed on broad, generous lines it may be expected to produce the benefits which Professor Judd has forcibly outlined.—ED. THE NATION.]

Correspondence

Two Hundred Years Ago

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of the present world war the following lines, said to have been written by Cardinal Altien to an Englishman in 1728, make interesting reading:

L'Allemagne craint tout;
L'Autriche risque tout;
La Bavière espère tout;
La Prusse entreprend tout;
Mayence rend tout;
Le Portugal regarde tout;
L'Angleterre veut faire tout;
L'Espagne embrouille tout;
La Savoye se défie de tout;
La Moscovie se mêle de tout;
La Hollande obtient tout;
La France souffle tout;
Les Jésuites se trouvent partout;
Rome bénit tout.
Si Dieu ne prévoit à tout,
Le Diable emportera tout!

CALVIN S. BROWN

University of Mississippi, November 12

Nursing the Wounded Civilian

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It was natural that, in 1914, nurses in large numbers should volunteer for nursing service abroad. Still more natural has it been during these three years that more and more nurses should be called and should go to care for those who have been wounded on the field of battle. At the present time, when, among those wounded may now be our own sons, brothers, husbands, and friends, it would be almost inevitable that every trained nurse should feel well-nigh irresistibly impelled to go to the front, there to do her work of mending what was broken. This is, one need not say, as it should be. There is not one of us who would have our nurses do otherwise than render the fullest service possible. We would all spare them for this service in as great numbers as we possibly can.

But we must not allow ourselves, nor allow them, to forget that the wounded of the world are not all concentrated on the fields of battle; that in our towns and cities there are men as sorely and seriously wounded every day, many times a day, as there are at the front. Their numbers, of course, are fewer; and they are not wounded with shrapnel and shells; and they are not soldiers, but civilians. Still, the fact remains—they are wounded men and they need the skilled hands of surgeons and the expert care of nurses exactly to the extent, and exactly for the same reasons, as do the soldiers at the front. The office of the nurse and the surgeon is to save life—all life, any life, in any and every place where it is in danger of being lost. Let us remember our wounded at home, and not leave them to die untended or inadequately tended.

Who are these wounded? Where do they live? What has wounded them? In every factory, however carefully the machinery is protected, there are frightful accidents, in which men and women, and occasionally children, are injured. In our mines and quarries, the same thing occurs. Every day, on the streets of our cities and towns, there are accidents, whereby men are as critically hurt as they would be on the battlefield. These civilian soldiers, doing their patriotic duty at home as devotedly as their soldier brothers are doing it abroad, are surely entitled to a similar care when they are injured. As much depends upon making them well as upon making well the soldiers. Connected with a few of the mines and manufacturing plants in our land are hospitals specially designed to care for such wounded as these. Also, connected with most of our hospitals are emergency wards, to which the injured on the streets are brought. The adequate usefulness of these institutions and wards depends as much upon the presence of highly trained nurses as upon the presence of skilled surgeons. As little as the surgeon can the nurse be spared.

Not long ago I went with a visiting nurse to see a man who had sustained a very serious injury to his foot. He had had a good surgeon, and all that that surgeon could do had been done. As the surgeon said, the remainder of his care rested upon the nurse. While she was making her instruments sterile in another room, the man talked to me. "The doctor was afraid I'd lose my foot," he said, after recounting to me the details of the accident with which he had met; "I guess I would have, too, any day, if any germs had got in, or it hadn't been bandaged right; but Miss D. she comes every day, and makes it all safe." That was exactly what she did. It is for this "making safe" that we need some of our war nurses at home, to do our war nursing here.

Not only accidents, occurring in the ordinary course of the day's work, but surgical operations, cause wounds which call for as skilled nursing as ever did a wound got on the field of battle. Here, too, the place of the trained nurse must not be empty, nor filled by a substitute less able than she. The surgeon needs her; the patient needs her more.

Still another very important branch of surgery demands, for its safe performance and care, the offices of the trained nurse; this is the case of women in child-birth—in what the ancient liturgy of the Church accurately describes as "the perils of child-birth." It has now come to be a recognized fact that skilled care, on the part of both physician and nurse, is imperative, if this peril is to be overcome—a peril which involves not only the life of the mother, but of the child also. We cannot afford at any time, most particularly in time of war, to leave the attendance upon the woman and the child being born in inexperienced or inadequately trained hands.

Indeed, it is a curious fact that, in our hospitals at home to-day, in not one of which is there a single wounded soldier—excepting those wounded in the civilian ways indicated—there is still the necessity for not only the nurse, but what we might term the war nurse—that is to say, the surgical nurse. We cannot afford to ignore this, nor

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to consider it otherwise than very seriously indeed. War nursing at home is not so romantic, not so dramatic, as war nursing abroad. There is no one of us who would not thoroughly sympathize with any nurse who longs to go to the front; to aid in this great war at the point of highest interest. But, at the same time, we must plead the cause of the less dramatic, the less romantic war nursing at home; that it be not neglected nor slighted. If not situated at the point of highest interest, yet it actually is of an importance as high as war nursing abroad; the nurses who do it constitute the "Home Guard."

ELIZABETH MCCRACKEN

Washington, D. C., December 1

Duo Amici Inter Se Coniuncti

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent issue of the *Nation* (October 18, 1917), under the heading "James Russell Lowell and 'Il Pesceballo,'" I discussed the authorship of the English version of that little opera. Proceeding on circumstantial evidence I there built up my argument almost wholly *ex silentio*, and I moved along with gradually increased momentum.

The following quotation from a letter received from Prof. G. L. Kittredge and cited with his permission removes all doubt of authorship: "Years ago, when I was chatting with Mr. Child in his study one day, he gave me a copy of 'Il Pesceballo.' I was of course very glad to have it, and said so. He replied with characteristic modesty 'All that gives the thing any interest is Lowell's English version.' That is the substance of his remark—pretty close, indeed, to his exact words, though doubtless not the *ipsissima verba*. That he spoke of the English version as Lowell's—plainly and beyond the possibility of misunderstanding—I am certain." My contention, therefore, was wholly erroneous and my concluding flourish needlessly grand. I am glad that the question is permanently settled and doubly glad that it is settled as it is. Two intimate friends and delightful men are thus again brought into closer relationship with each other.

G. C. SCOGGIN

University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo., November 6

A Correction

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: To those of us whose memory goes back fifty or sixty years, small events of youth assume importance not always recognized by younger persons than ourselves. This must serve as my explanation and excuse for correcting a misstatement in the notice by Mr. Scoggin of "James Russell Lowell and Il Pesceballo," in the *Nation* of October 18. Mr. Scoggin says, in answering the inquiry, who is the author of "The Lone Fish Ball"? that "it was Professor G. M. Lane, who humorously elaborates a little mishap that had once befallen him." Mr. Scoggin probably relied upon the late Professor Morgan, who said that he had it from Professor Lane that it was a misadventure of his own. Mr. Morgan must have misunderstood Mr. Lane. It was unanimously accepted in the early 60's in Cambridge that Professor Lane wrote the ballad and that Professor Joseph Lovering was the hero of it, and a distinguished graduate of Harvard in the early 50's told me to-day that Professor Lane, while living as a bachelor on Follen Street, in Cambridge, behind the house of my informant's father, wrote the song about Professor Lovering. If further confirmation is needed, it appears in two stanzas of the song:

> Wretch that I am, it happens meet,
> Why did I leave my Kirkland Street.
> None but a fool a wife forsakes
> Who ras'berry jam and waffles makes.

Professor Lovering was married not later than 1844, and kept house with his family on Kirkland Street during the remainder of his life. Professor Lane was not married until 1857, and as a householder dwelt only on Main Street in Cambridge. The song was copyrighted not later than 1859, and a song of this simple and personal character would in all probability have been circulated for several years in those simple old Cambridge days before any one would have thought of getting out a copyright.

C. E. S.

Boston, Mass., November 12

Commission Government

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I notice in your issue of November 15 you state: "The proud claim that no city which has tried commission government has ever gone back to the older form can no longer be made," referring to the action of the voters of Lynn, Massachusetts, during the preceding week. The city of Denver changed from a Mayor and council form of city government to the commission form in 1913, and changed back to the old form again in 1916, the election being held on May 9 of that year and the change taking effect on June 1. The new charter places much greater power in the hands of the Mayor than did the one which was abandoned for commission form.

CHARLES H. HAINES

Denver, Col., November 17

[We are obliged to our correspondent for this correction, which should be brought to the attention of the editors of the *World* Almanac and other standard works of reference. —ED. THE NATION.]

Rodin's Memorial to Whistler

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Kenyon Cox in his article on Rodin has referred to most of that artist's works—save those he did for America. One of those, the memorial to Whistler, to which some of your readers subscribed, Rodin wrote me he finished last spring, and was only waiting for the time when bronze could be had for art, instead of being used for war.

JOSEPH PENNELL

Cleveland, O., November 23

James Whitcomb Riley

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am preparing for publication in the near future the letters of James Whitcomb Riley. I shall be grateful if any one who has letters from Riley or knows of their existence will communicate with me or send the letters to me. All letters will be carefully returned as soon as they have been copied.

EDMUND H. EITEL

Riley Estate, Indianapolis, November 19

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BOOKS

An Official Witness of the Rape of Belgium

A Journal from Our Legation in Belgium. By Hugh Gibson. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. $2.50 net.

THIS is one of the best books which the war has given us. The author was first secretary of the American Legation in Brussels, and had an opportunity which seldom comes to one. What we have is part of his private journal noted down in odd moments when pressing duties were over. It is a mystery how he found time to keep such a record. The writing is not beautiful or fine, but the story is so surpassingly good that it never is tiresome or dull. Mr. Gibson was eminently the man to be where he was and to write this account—upright, efficient, industrious, carelessly brave, generous of service for others, respectful, sympathetic, courteous, always bright with a cheery humor. He is an excellent and competent witness, and we have greatest confidence that his story is true.

Brussels was very quiet when he went to his post there, and soon he wished greatly to be sent to a busier place. Then came the end of July. Many abroad that summer will remember such things as he relates here: the awful uncertainty, the excitement in the press and the streets, the demonstrations, the crowds of tourists streaming back to get home, the scarcity of money, then the mobilizations, the beginning of war. As we follow these pages with breathless interest we know how it all seemed in Belgium. "No line on the future yet." But on Sunday, the second of August, "the story is around town this afternoon that the Germans have already crossed the frontier. . . . Brussels was put under martial law last night." The German Minister drove home from the Foreign Office. "I saw that the perspiration was standing out on his forehead. . . . He looked neither to left nor right." Next morning the news was abroad of the note which he had presented. The regular troops were sent off, and the Garde Civique with ridiculous hats were patrolling the streets. Monday he was in the Parliament building. He saw the Queen sit beside the tribune, and the King come forward to the dais. He heard the simple, manly speech, broken again and again by frantic cheering. "At first his voice was not very steady, but he soon controlled it." "Are you determined at any cost to maintain the sacred heritage of our ancestors?" The whole Chamber burst into a roar, and from the Socialists' side came cries of "At any cost, by death if need be." The American Legation took over German interests; German officials left for their country, and afterwards numerous civilians. Some of the Germans had an unhappy time, for the fear of spies was universal. Even Burgomaster Max was chased down the streets of his city. The Restaurant "Chez Fritz" made haste with a notice: "Fritz est Luxembourgeois, mais sa Maison est Belge." Liège was holding out; all the papers had headlines: "Les forts tiennent toujours." French troops began to appear amid wild enthusiasm of the people. Then the war drew nearer. The forts at Liège had fallen; the Government removed to Antwerp. From the east crowds of refugees came in. The Garde Civique was disbanded; there was no hope of defending the city. On the 20th German troops marched through the streets in triumph.

It is not easy to select typical things from such vivid narrative of a time when mighty and tragic events crowded so close in passing. There was the morning when the Germans went through the streets of the capital, haughty, contemptuous, in marvellous array and equipment. "It was a wonderful sight, and one which I never expect to see equalled as long as I live. They poured down the hill in a steady stream without a pause or a break; not an order was shouted nor a word exchanged among the officers or men. All the orders and signals were given by whistles and signs." There was the first night when he was in Antwerp—he made several hazardous trips there: in utter weariness he had got into bed, when at short intervals came eight fearful explosions, then a sharp purring sound, just before "the chimes of the Cathedral—the sweetest carillon I have ever heard—sounded one o'clock." Next morning they knew that a Zeppelin had sailed over the city with lights out, dropping its bombs. The palace with the Queen and the royal children was narrowly missed. The author visited one of the wrecked houses, where a policeman and his wife had been blown to fragments. The pieces were all over the walls and the ceiling. "I could not stand any more than this one room." It happened far from any fortifications, and Antwerp was not yet being attacked. Here, as in other instances, he judges that it was done simply with the idea of so terrifying the people that they would demand that their Government surrender. There was a dreary day when in a villa near Furnes he met the King again. A great battle was raging along the Yser. In the distance could be seen the British ships shelling the Germans. Everywhere noise: the windows were steadily rattling. "The King stood beside the table with his finger tips resting on the cloth. . . . I looked up at him once, but could not bear to do it again—it was the saddest face one can imagine, but not a word of complaint." Later in the afternoon he saw the Queen, and had from her an account of the awful suffering of the wounded, with so few to give them attention. A battleship had joined the monitors now: such noise that conversation was difficult. "As I was not dismissed, I finally took it on myself to go, and the Queen came with me to the door and sent me on my way. She stood in the lighted doorway until I reached the motor, and then turned slowly and went in—a delicate little woman with a lion's heart." There were the infernal sights of the burning of Louvain. And there was the sad and dreadful night when the hopeless attempt to save Edith Cavell failed. His account of this has already been published, but again one reads of the brave and sweet spirit of this woman, who admitted the charge against her and was willing to die, and remembers the hard and unpitying character of the German officials. "Count Harrach broke in . . . with the rather irrelevant remark that he would rather see Miss Cavell shot than have harm come to the humblest German soldier, and his only regret was that they had not 'three or four old English women to shoot.'"

In this book is ample evidence of the atrocities so often charged and as often denied. The author was friendly with many Germans, and he says not a little about their better parts; but scarcely anything could give so mournful and disgusting a picture of German spirit and methods as the simple statements contained in this writing. On numerous occasions he witnessed the desolation of the country around;

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many times he talked with people who seemed to him credible witnesses, and they related to him fearful things; at times he himself looked on what no one would wish to see. And the worst part of it is, he is convinced, as many others have been, that the terrorism was deliberately done, in cold blood, in pursuance of well-thought-out plans to put into Belgian hearts a palsy of fear.

He gives no instances whatever of serious misbehavior on the part of civilians. Evidently the authorities took every measure to insure conduct quiet and correct. August 6: "The Government is taking no chances of having trouble because of the doings of franc-tireurs. The Minister of the Interior sent out, on the 4th, a circular to every one of the 2,700 communes in the country to be posted everywhere. The circular points out in simple and emphatic terms the duty of civilians to refrain from hostile acts and makes it clear that civilians might be executed for such acts." Warnings were printed in all the papers. On the 18th: "Everywhere we went we heard stories of peaceful peasants being fired on. It seems hard to believe, but the stories are terribly persistent. There may be some sniping by the non-combatant population, but the authorities are doing everything they can to prevent it, by requiring them to give up their arms and pointing out the danger of reprisals." A little later he speaks of the fairness with which the Belgian Government is investigating alleged atrocities. "If one one-thousandth part of the charges are proven to be true. . . ." Two priests stagger into one of the legations, more dead than alive: they had been kept as a protecting screen ahead of the German troops. Not far from Ghent some peasants tell him that they had been made to march before Germans when advance was made against Belgians. "I don't like to believe that there is any truth in that story, but it comes from every direction and the people tell it in a most convincing way." Many were completely broken. At Louvain they came upon a child about seven years old carrying a bird in a cage. "As soon as she saw us, she threw up her hands and cried out something we did not understand. . . . Then she burst out crying with fear, and we saw that she was in terror of her life. We called out to reassure her, but she turned and ran like a hunted animal." So also with others: "townspeople, peasants, priests, and feeble old nuns who dropped their bundles and threw up their hands, their eyes starting with fear. The whole thing was a nightmare." A German officer explained it: "This frank fellow made no claim that civilians had attacked the German troops; his only observation was that they might do so unless they were so completely cowed that they dared not raise their hands . . . in the long run this was the most humane manner of conducting war." One thinks of this bitterly—most humane for the Germans—for whoever desires easy conquest!

The most important statements of the author concern Louvain and the starving Belgians. He was not in the doomed city at first, but arrived in time to see much of the work of destruction. It is his deliberate opinion that for six days the German army indulged in an orgy of bestiality and murder, and that "the whole affair was part of a cold-blooded and calculated plan to terrorize the civilian population." At this time all of the details cannot be published without endangering the lives of people remaining in Belgium, but later on "the true facts as to the destruction of Louvain will startle the world—hardened though it has become to surprise at German crimes." When food was nearly exhausted some one remarked that the Germans must not let the Belgians starve. General von Lüttwitz replied with warmth that the Allies might feed them; if they did not, they were responsible for whatever might happen; that if there were riots, the whole civil population might be driven into some restricted area and fenced in and left to themselves. Hereupon Mr. Gibson remarks—it is October 14 of the first year: "As the German policy is more or less frankly stated as a determination to wipe out as many of the enemy as possible without regard to what is or has been considered as permissible, it is quite within the realm of possibility that they would be prepared to let the Belgian people starve." The story of the Relief Commission he leaves to be told by another.

Interesting illustrations abound: military costume, scenes of destruction, Germans who pose for their pictures. Among the numerous portraits may be mentioned especially one of the brave and noble King, another of Mr. Hoover, silent and immensely able, and best of all one which admirably shows the refined and noble features of Cardinal Mercier, the most distinguished and splendid figure among Roman Catholics at present.

Red Blood: Gore and Ichor

Michael, Brother of Jerry. By Jack London. New York: The Macmillan Company.

Wolf Breed. By Jackson Gregory. New York: Dodd, Mead & Company.

The Renegade. By John Finnemore. New York: The Macmillan Company.

The Twice American. By Eleanor M. Ingram. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company.

The Forfeit. By Ridgwell Cullum. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Company.

The Major. By Ralph Connor. New York: George H. Doran Company.

IN the Foreword of his second posthumous dog-story, the late Jack London took what we suppose to have been his final fling at such persons as were in the habit of deploring his addiction to savagery for its own sake. "I am not," he admits, "a namby-pamby. By the book reviewers and the namby-pambys, I am esteemed a sort of primitive beast that delights in the spilled blood of violence and horror. Without arguing this matter of my general reputation, accepting it at its current face value, let me add that I have indeed lived life in a very rough school and have seen more than the average man's share of inhumanity and cruelty, from . . ." Follows a summary of the ghastly things that have fallen within his own experience. The truth is that London never could see the difference between "red blood," that ichor filling the veins of strong manhood which he worshipped, and the visible red blood drawn in torture from shrieking flesh, for which he had a morbid and lamentable fondness. The strength of courage and fortitude inspired his purpose, but the weakness of cruelty obsessed his fancy. He honestly thought that in writing this story, which is primarily (by intention) a protest against the cruelty of training animals for show, he was vindicating his softness of heart. He did love dogs, he did hate to have them tortured; yet a part of him gloated over the spectacle of their torments. "Practically all of us," he predicts, "will weep red

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tears and sweat bloody sweats as we come to the knowledge of the unavoidable cruelty and brutality on which the trained-animal world rests and has its being." Red tears and bloody sweats!—these are the tributes Jack London loved to wring from the torn hearts (as it were) of his auditors. If the reader would put his finger on some special item in proof of this, let him read the description of the fight between Michael and a quite casual man which takes place after Michael has been rescued from the torment of the trained-animal world, and which is therefore clearly introduced on its own merits. There is a good deal of this kind of thing in the "Wolf Breed" of Jackson Gregory, in particular one tooth-and-talon battle between two frontiersmen, before a large and admiring audience, the account of which is voluptuously drawn out to the last detail of throat-gouging and finger-breaking and kindred "primitive" amenities. The story, we note, is inscribed to the author's son. It may be summed up as a tale of red blood pumped up by machine. The usual lovely maiden from civilized parts plays her buoyant rôle in the incarnadined proceedings.

Love and blood-letting have a notorious affinity, and it is a business of the romancer to set forth these popular enterprises in the same rosy light, so that one may be rendered as engaging as the other. There is enough blood shed in "The Renegade" to float the largest pirate galley therein described. But it is harmlessly shed, for our purposes, since (however fatal the corpuscular loss of our enemies) our friends, like Milton's angels, may bleed as freely as they will, at but trifling and momentary inconvenience. Our enemies are many, Moors, Algerines, Pachas and Janissaries, and such corsair renegades of all nations as happen to be on the other side. Our next friend is a stalwart and rich and chivalrous country Squire of old England—honest fellow, we are always glad to see him again; and *his* next friend is a beautiful damsel in distress, whom our Squire rescues from drowning as a witch, only to get her captured by Barbary pirates. The head pirate is the renegade of the title, a stout Briton who has turned against the world in revenge for its injustice. Whether he is friend or enemy is a bit uncertain. We cannot approve of his naughty way of torturing slaves and butchering helpless travellers, but he does so well by our romantic pair (having once served as cabin-boy of the Squire's father!) that we really cannot hold anything else seriously against him. A highly spirited and glamorous tale of its kind. Red blood manifests itself as an inner virtue rather than an external decoration in "The Twice American," a modern romance involving the masterful career of an American adventurer in Brazil, who makes shift to serve both Americas without sacrificing his allegiance to either. The chief villain is a German intriguer who, but for our hero, would have won Brazil for Germany. A fair New Yorker is the lifelong inspiration and ultimate prize of the "twice American." With "The Forfeit" we return once more to the favorite romantic hunting-ground of the Western ranching country, and the familiar lay-out of ranchers, cowboys, and "rustlers." The comic tenderfoot is agreeably absent. There is an excellent movie plot, based upon a situation of uncommon melodramatic force. The heroine and the adventuress are almost human, and there is a nearer approach to characterization throughout than one often finds in romance of this type. If the romance of plains-life has now become pretty thoroughly formulated and codified, that is a mark of its promotion from the merely strange and new to the familiar and cherished. If, as Mr. Wister laments, the cowboy in the flesh is even now well-nigh a thing of the past, he has but entered his kingdom in the world of romance; we are in danger of losing him no more than his elder peers in that world: the ogres and paladins, pirates and wandering princes and treasure-hunters and rescuers of maidens, who are the mainstays of romantic fancy.

The fiction of the Canadian West has also pretty well settled to a formula. In the hands of writers like Mr. Harold Bindloss and "Ralph Connor," it has become familiar to a public of considerable size. It has several obvious differences from the American variety of frontier romance. For the contrast between the Yankee and the Greaser, it substitutes that between the British Canadian and the French; for the amiable Eastern tenderfoot, who asks nothing better of the West than that it shall take him to itself, it has the supercilious Briton, fresh from Piccadilly, who wishes to carry his snobbery and his Oxford cadences into the thick of the "bush." In "The Major," the Canadian dominie (he is a Presbyterian), who writes as "Ralph Connor," and who since the war began has been serving as a chaplain at the front, has painted a picture of ante-bellum Canada. Alberta is in the foreground, with its unmatchable ranches and its inexhaustible mines—another "God's country," such as pioneers have been wont to discover the world over. One element in its mixed population, hitherto of incidental moment, is here seen emerging as of a special character—the German element. Its potency for harm is embodied in the young Ernest Switzer, who, born in Canada, has returned from his education in Germany an officer and a thoroughgoing German. He knows that the war is not far off, and has the full Prussian confidence in its outcome. Pitted against him, and destined to conquer him in the affairs of love, at least, is our once superior gentleman from Piccadilly, who has so soon succumbed to the charm and the authority of Canadian life. But he is not the official hero of the tale; this is young Larry Gwynne, of Quaker stock and instincts, who will not believe that the war is to be, or that any war ought to be. What we are to see, of course, is his inevitable conversion to the fighting spirit, and his zealous entrance as a champion of the sacred cause of humanity. Red blood!—never, surely, has its ichor so filled the veins of life as in this day: never has its dross so freely flowed upon the altar of sacrifice. Daily, and somewhat cruelly, fate appears to be robbing the Londons and the Roosevelts of their virile supremacy, in robbing them of the namby-pambys and the mollycoddles who have been their favorite prey.

A Maker of Men

The Master of the Hill, a Biography of John Meigs. By Walter Russell Bowie. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $3 net.

IN the year of our Centennial, 1876, John Meigs, who was then teaching modern languages at Lafayette College, received an appeal from his mother to return home and take up the work which was thenceforth to absorb all the intellectual, moral, and spiritual energy of a tremendous personality. The Hill School was his home. There he had been born, there he had spent his boyhood, but it had been no part of his plan to succeed his father, the Rev. Dr.

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Matthew Meigs, as its headmaster. He did not even intend to continue in the profession of teaching, but to become a journalist. His father, however, had already retired from active management of the school, and under other supervision things were not going well. Mrs. Meigs felt that she needed the strong support that only John could give.

It was characteristic of the man that he never sought to evade a duty, never wasted a moment in regrets, always gave himself unreservedly to the thing that was to be done. Thus it may be that to his mother's love of the school where she had spent a quarter of a century, and to her desire that her husband's work should survive, we owe the present wide influence of a great American school and the inspiring record of a great American schoolmaster. In the ensuing thirty-five years John Meigs reared a "monument more enduring than bronze"—not only in the impressive group of buildings that to-day crown the hill overlooking the valley of the Schuylkill, nor even in the group of remarkably able men who were attracted by his personality to join with him in a work promising less material than spiritual reward; but still more in the lives of hundreds of boys who have gone forth from the school to become men of courage, character, and high ideals.

This is the tribute that Mr. Bowie pays to The Master of the Hill in his Biography. An unusual interest attaches to the book through the directness and simplicity with which it is written. To one who knew John Meigs, it gives a faithful and vivid portrait of him, as revealed in the words of former Hill School students, masters, and others, and in the straightforward narrative of his life and works. It is worth reading, not only because of the contribution which Meigs made to the profession in which he was engaged, but because of the worth of the man himself. He was a stern disciplinarian, he insisted on the most rigid adherence to standards, he believed in hard work and sound scholarship, yet he was able to inspire devoted loyalty and the deepest affection. He was intensely human—instantly responsive to others' troubles and difficulties, filled with love for boys, and a desire to bring out the best that was in each. His conception of the school's objective is somewhat revealed in his own words:

> The School is not a knowledge-shop, so much as a great assay of human souls. Education means making the most of each and all. By making the many capable of noble life, the weakness that becomes strong by being good is given a fair chance. The practice of the art of teaching, therefore, is not restricted to one type of mind or character. There is only one duty for the teacher to know—the putting first the boy's life and his good.

His insistence upon truth, obedience, and purity was the more impressive because of his "own absolute truthfulness and sincerity and his hatred of everything mean and false." As one boy said, "The Professor's strongest characteristic, as I remember it, was his absolute abhorrence of anything that was deceitful or underhanded, and I remember that he never stole in on any of the boys unawares, either in our rooms or in the schoolroom, as his tread down the hall was always distinctly heard; and I do not remember ever having been spied upon by any of the teachers at The Hill." John Meigs was deeply religious, though never narrow in adherence to the outward forms of religion. Another "old boy" said of him, "The memory that comes quickest to mind shows the Professor sitting on the small platform in the old schoolroom, conducting the evening prayer service. The light of the oil lamp which he used to carry around with him at such imminent peril fell on the strong, kind face, and the beloved voice was the only sound to be heard as he read to us (most often from Paul's epistles) exhortations to stand fast in the faith; be strong; to forget the things which are behind and press forward towards the mark for the high calling of God, which is in Christ Jesus our Lord; to think on whatsoever things are true, lovely, beautiful, of good report, if there be any virtue and if there be any praise." Though this boy did not quote verbatim, he had gained more of the spirit than some who are letter-perfect. Lastly, Meigs had the saving grace of humor, none better loved a good story or could better tell one; he was quick as a flash with the retort that savored of wit or sarcasm when occasion offered. And he enjoyed a joke at his own expense quite as much as when some other was the victim.

As one reads Mr. Bowie's narrative, one's interest increases to the very end. The author has succeeded in making us glad that a man like John Meigs lived among us, and that he lives in this book. Doubtless this is in part due to the fact that Bowie is himself an old Hill boy and former Hill master as well, and brought to his task not only the authority of personal knowledge, but the ability to write well. The story of Kentaro, a Japanese boy of noble family, who became an outcast through espousing Christianity, wandered to America, and was befriended by John Meigs, is one of a number of passages in the book that have high literary merit.

How Canada Is Governed

The Constitution of Canada. By William Renwick Riddell. Yale University Press. $1.25 net.

THE author of this volume is a jurist of scholarly reputation in his own land, a Justice of the Supreme Court of Ontario. Some time ago he was invited to deliver four lectures at Yale, and these lectures are now given to the public in book form under a title which is not particularly well chosen. The volume does not contain any formal or connected description of the Canadian Constitution, and the reader who turns to it for general information as to how Canada is actually governed will, in all probability, be disappointed. This is not to imply, however, that the book is either discursive or superficial throughout. There is an excellent outline of Canadian constitutional history, followed by a passable summary of the British North America act, which is the basis of Canadian government. But the analysis of the Dominion Constitution in actual operation is neither adequate nor profound.

As the concluding chapter there is what purports to be a comparison of Canada's Federal Government with that of the United States, but in reality it is little more than a discussion of what the author terms "the great and overshadowing difference" between the two, namely, the absence of constitutional limitations in the Canadian political system. This, indeed, seems to lie heavily upon the writer's mind. He reverts to it again and again throughout the volume.

There is no question as to Judge Riddell's mastery of constitutional law and practice so far as his own country is concerned, but his grasp of our jurisprudence, as this little volume discloses it, is scarcely so impressive. Take, for example, the various discussions of state courts which are cited (pp. 138-139) as though they established rules of law for the entire country when they have, of course, no

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controlling force outside the jurisdiction of the state concerned. It certainly does not follow, as Judge Riddell assumes, that the establishment of free scholarships for needy students out of public funds is forbidden "in the United States" because such privilege has been denied in Maryland by a judicial interpretation of that State's Constitution. Massachusetts, for example, has for many years maintained out of public taxes a hundred free scholarships at a single educational institution. So with many other illustrations of the American doctrine of judicial supremacy which the author presents in a superficial and at times a misleading way.

Nor is the book altogether free from the blemish of fallacious generalization. "In the United States," we are informed, "the courts are supreme: in Canada the people through their representatives" (p. 145). This, of course, is nothing but rigmarole, and wide of the facts at that. The sombre truth is that the organic law of both the nation and the States, to which even the courts of this country must defer, is within the ultimate power of the people to change, whereas the Constitution of Canada cannot be altered save by a Parliament in which Judge Riddell and his fellow-Canadians have no representation whatever.

Such intricate constitutional questions as those which connect themselves with the impairment of contracts, the delegation of legislative power, and the deprivation of property without due process of law cannot be discussed in off-hand fashion unless one is prepared to jettison the virtue of accuracy. American jurists have long since learned to handle these matters with due circumspection. The foreign student of American jurisprudence should also learn that fact in his first lesson.

The Dark Continent and Missions

The Lure of Africa. By Cornelius H. Patton. Missionary Education Movement.

THE comic-paper idea of a missionary in a black coat, white choker, and top hat landing solitary on the Cannibal Islands with his Bible under his arm is not more than a century behind the times. The old haphazard methods of private adventure have long ago been discarded. Modern missions are organized like great businesses, or military campaigns. The territory to be occupied is surveyed; the conditions are studied; permanent bases are formed, and points of attack selected, seized, and held. The churches now coöperate admirably in the foreign fields and do not overlap or duplicate each other's effort. Meanwhile, in the rear, a campaign of education is steadily carried on; and the diffusion of "war correspondence" has extended far beyond the scope of the old-fashioned church paper or missionary report.

Such a survey of the Dark Continent from the missionary point of view has been published under the somewhat misleading title, "The Lure of Africa." The unwary layman might suspect a treatise on big-game shooting; and the serious-minded reader, when he has laid the book down, might fail to perceive anything alluring in this immense mission field. It bristles with problems. The mere contact of civilization brings down new diseases on the native and new plagues on his cattle. An enormous drink traffic demoralizes the tribes wholesale; the kraals are strewn with empty "square-face." There is the eternal problem of black and white living side by side in harmony. Mr. Patton states the problems, but he makes their difficulty more apparent than any approach to their solution. He has, of course, his one remedy for all these ills.

Towards the African he is thoroughly sympathetic, having travelled in South Africa and seen him for himself. One injustice which caught his attention was the hut tax; but it would appear that he has failed to grasp the problem in its entirety. Undoubtedly, the native often finds it hard to raise the small sum the Government exacts; but that is simply because he has never learned to work. The alternative to the hut tax is to allow the negro to live in time to come as he has in time past, lounging in idleness about the kraal, while his women keep the fire boiling under the pot for him. Can it be right or wise to allow hundreds of thousands of savages to live in barbaric sloth and squalor? Is there any possibility of progress for blacks, or whites, who never learn the blessing of labor? The hut tax was an attempt to answer these questions. It is as yet an experiment, the intention being to give the native some training in the elements of citizenship, with the expectation that he should in time reach the full status of voter.

Another problem is the competition of Islam. While stationary in Europe and Asia, the religion of Mohammed is sweeping down from the north of Africa, carrying with it tribe after tribe. The simplicity of the Moslem creed, the zeal of the missionaries, the appeal to the warlike instincts of the fighting races account for this notable advance. There can be no doubt that the African rises in the scale through the stern monotheism of the Prophet; it is an improvement over cannibalism and fetich worship: and the Koran forbids the use of wine. Still, the Christian missions would be untrue to their faith, if they accepted the situation without a struggle. This book discusses how the Moslem tide is to be stemmed.

Although the author disavows erudition, he has gleaned well in a very wide field, as his bibliography attests. He intends to be readable and popular; and he has managed to compress a great deal of general information about Africa within less than two hundred pages. The geography, racial peculiarities, climatic conditions, natural resources, and trade possibilities are well sketched, apart from the main subject of missions. The "savage African" has his own moral code, which suffers from contact with the "civilization" brought by the white trader, as Mary Kingsley made plain in her engaging, unconventional books. The white missionary is the antidote. Now his aim is much more than "converting the heathen"; he educates the native, teaches him trades, cures his diseases, and generally makes a man of him.

There are helpful maps, charts, and illustrations. The mere layman will "find his account" in this handbook, as well as the student of Christian missions, the specialist for which it was written.

The Efficient Whaler

Modern Whaling and Bear Hunting. By W. G. Burn Murdoch. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

THE old time whaler has looked askance at the new tendencies in his profession which have manifested themselves with increasing force since Svend Foyn, the Norwegian, developed a mechanical method of harpooning that

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brought the great "finners" within his grasp and thus restored attractive profits to a calling threatened with economic extinction. If whaling were primarily a sport rather than an industry, there would be much to be said in favor of the sentiment against shooting into the whale from a fair-sized cannon an enormous billet of steel attached to a cable five inches in circumference. But since the taking of the whale is and must remain primarily an industry, such applications of modern scientific invention as will maintain it on a sound financial footing are both inevitable and unobjectionable. The reader of this volume will be convinced, however, that not even Svend Foyn's powder-driven harpoon has taken the rugged romance out of the business.

Previous to the development of the new method, the enormous rorquals, commonly called "finners," were virtually beyond the power of the whaler to capture at all. Not only were they too strong to be handled with the tackle available to the old style harpooner, but even if one should finally be killed its heavy body could not be kept from sinking. The smaller types which could be handled, such as the Greenland right whale and the Southern right whale, had ceased to offer sufficient profit, because of an increase in working expenses, a diminution in the average catch, and a decrease in the price of oil. The diminution in the catch is attributed not wholly to a decrease in number in the seas, but in no small degree to increasing wariness in the whales, in face of persistent hunting. The author does not regard the extinction of any of the types as seriously threatened. The new method has been the source of prosperity to a large part of the population of southern Norway, and of considerable fortunes to some. Svend Foyn died a millionaire. In the older days the whalebone and blubber were removed and the rest of the body was turned adrift. To-day an ever-increasing portion of the catch is towed to shore factories where every part of the carcass is utilized. A whale-meat meal is manufactured which forms an acceptable cattle food. The residue of bones and flesh not available for other purposes is turned into a fertilizer rich in ammonia and phosphates. At the outbreak of the war Mr. Burn Murdoch seriously proposed to the British authorities to furnish whale meat in large quantities for army food, but the proposal was not accepted.

During these times of food economy the morning paper tells of the successful serving of planked whale steak on the menu of a prominent New York hotel. There is little doubt that a liberal supply of it would be readily accepted in Berlin to-day, if offered. A young scientist of Clark University has proved beyond cavil the possibility of serving up the hated dog-fish in a form both nutritious and palatable, and it is probably safe now to say that one of the most promising sources of relief from undue strain upon the limits of productivity of the soil, through increasing population, lies in the immeasurable food possibilities of the sea. Where the requirements of healthful nutrition are demonstrably present, modern culinary art and science will sooner or later find a way to the elimination of objectionable tastes and odors and the application of such relishes and seasonings as will satisfy any palate not under the domination of immovable prejudice. The tons of steak in every big finner brought to the whaler's side may soon serve by its competition to keep the price of salmon within easy reach of the poor man's table. The author gives his personal testimony that "the best whale meat is better to eat and tastes better than the best beef"; but the time will hardly come when the authority of one palate can settle a matter of taste for another. A process has already been devised by which whale oil can be hardened and turned into a product suitable for cooking.

The interesting personality of Mr. Burn Murdoch is a welcome embellishment to the subject-matter of his book. On the practical side he is a genuine whaler, in the business for the profit which it offers, with a keen eye for efficient methods in its prosecution, and yet with that larger outlook that would have his own success only an element in the success of all. But he has also in his make-up a well-developed æsthetic element which finds in the sea something more than the whales which are to fill his oil vessels and thereby fatten his bank account. An artist of no inconsiderable ability, his text is liberally enlivened with his own drawings of whales, seals, icebergs, dolphins, harpoonings, bear-lassoings, and other incidents and *Realien* of his sea-roving experience.

Notes

MR. E. T. HURLEY has again issued a little volume of reproductions of his etchings, "For Old Acquaintance," illustrating scenes in Cincinnati and its surroundings. The thirty illustrations emphasize the old truth that picturesqueness and interest can be found at home, provided the artist's heart and sympathy are behind his eyes. The text by Sara Sax gives facts of local interest.

FROM the Macmillan Company comes "Navigation," a short, compact, well-printed octavo by Prof. Harold Jacoby ($1.25 net). The work is designed to meet the wants of hundreds of young officers recently taken into the navy, as well as of more yet to enter that service, who know little of mathematics and less of astronomy as applied to the daily problem of determining the position of a ship at sea. The ordinary astronomer is hardly fitted for this humble task, so far beneath his customary intellectual plane; but the author enjoyed unusual opportunities of studying the question during a cruise on the U. S. S. Pensacola when, in 1889 and 1890, she took him and his fellow astronomers to South Africa to observe a total eclipse of the sun. It is this practical experience which gave him the point of view of the seaman for whom this little book is written. Assuming no mathematical knowledge on the part of the reader and using simple language, he defines the ship's position, describes the methods of finding it by dead reckoning, by observation of a heavenly body or of objects on shore in coasting. These he illustrates by specific examples. The volume contains all the tables necessary to such calculations, so that, with it and the "Nautical Almanac," which gives for any date the location of all the navigational heavenly bodies (and which is supplied by the Government to every vessel), nothing more in the way of books is required by young navigators, who, doubtless, will welcome it as warmly as it deserves.

"GLEANINGS from Old Shaker Journals," compiled by Clara Endicott Sears (Houghton Mifflin; $1.25), relates to the life and experiences of the defunct Shaker settlement at Harvard, Massachusetts. From their early days the Shakers believed that the Christ Spirit, having once been

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revealed in the person of a man, must appear again and in the body of a woman, in order that humanity might have a complete revelation of the divine nature. When, therefore, Anne Lee, an English woman of strong personality, appeared among them, they took her for the expected Messiah and made her their head. To their questions in regard to her nature she said: "I am Anne, the Word," which satisfied their trusting natures. They followed her to North America, where, after some wanderings, they settled in Harvard, thenceforth the centre of the Shakers of New England. The peculiar forms of their worship aroused the countryside against them, and bitter persecutions followed. As long as these troubles lasted the sect prospered, but when tolerance came, about the middle of the nineteenth century, religious fervor decreased, and the Shakers were gradually absorbed in "the world" that lay round about them. They are now a thing of the past, and the compiler of this interesting little volume, who has had the art to win the confidence of a few survivors, has been allowed to draw freely from records which have hitherto been withheld from public inspection. Her story consists of long excerpts united by short comments of her own. It is a sympathetic treatment of people whose many virtues atone for their eccentricities. The major part of the extracts deal with persecutions, and are written by the Shakers themselves. Others deal with the mystical belief of the people and their singular ceremonies, while still others illustrate the economic and social life of the Shaker community. It is a book to be read by those who appreciate the spirit of the early-nineteenth-century New England, and for such persons it is alive with human interest.

THE American Sociological Society, in its last Christmas meeting, devoted its attention to the Sociology of Rural Life, and we have before us the set of papers and discussions presented (Volume XI of the Publications of the American Sociological Society, edited by Scott E. W. Bedford, University of Chicago Press; $1.50 net). President Vincent leads off with a paper on "Countryside and Nation," and there follows a series of presentations that makes a well-balanced survey of the most important aspects of the general subject, as these have been revealed during the comparatively few years since this brand of sociology came to be recognized. Professors Gillette and Vogt, whose recent works on Rural Sociology have been noticed in these columns, appear on the list of speakers. It is hardly possible to present any brief conspectus of the proceedings of the annual meeting beyond saying that in all probability the general subject has never before received so comprehensive an airing; and it is an important subject whose understanding will have much to contribute towards the wholesome prosecution of our national purposes and destiny.

MR. ARNOLD BENNETT has one attainment obviously needed by any one aspiring to *causerie*—he has read omnivorously. That was the secret of Andrew Lang's charm when he talked on the new publications. Mr. Bennett has also reflected, but not profoundly. He is provocative as a critic, seldom convincing. In short, he was excellently equipped to conduct the columns on "Books and Persons" in an English review for which he wrote under the name of Jacob Tonson in the years from 1908 to 1911. Many of his papers have now been collected in book form and published by Doran ($2 net). While not affording any consistent body of criticism, the book ranges pleasantly over the lights of the literary world in England and on the Continent during the years mentioned. The volume is always readable, it is often *intime*, and it is nearly always baffling. Perhaps this last characteristic was consciously cultivated as a part of the author's stock in trade: paradox and surprise had come to be the *sine qua non* of London's literary set. So, without further qualification, he says of St. John Hankin: "The least of his works is infinitely more important in the development of the English theatre than the biggest of the creaking contrivances for which Sir Arthur Wing Pinero has recently received honor from a grateful and cultured Government." But Mr. Bennett professes no competency in criticism save as a "creative artist," and he is at pains to enforce the point repeatedly. He can describe for you the authentic feeling shared by artists in the presence of Art's new offsprings. One is reminded of Swinburne's efforts at literary criticism. The two have this at least in common: their tributes, even to minor writers, are generous to the point of exaggeration. Mr. Bennett is the more discriminating, yet his judgments seem often to issue from a mind that is constitutionally fussy rather than judicial.

FOR his doctoral thesis in Columbia University William Haller has chosen "The Early Life of Robert Southey" (Lemcke & Buechner), that is, the first twenty-nine years of the poet's life, ending with his settlement at Keswick. In the main this is a good piece of work. The narrative parts are sufficiently vivacious, and the analysis of Southey's character, in itself and in comparison with the characters of Coleridge and Wordsworth, is sound and not without penetration. There is good psychology as well as sociology in such an observation as this: "Near Villa Franca [in Spain], for instance, where nature seemed a paradise, but where Church and State kept the people in poverty and ignorance, he [Southey] saw such a sight as Wordsworth had beheld in France—'a woman carrying a heavy burden of wood on her head, which she had cut herself, and spinning as she went along; a melancholy picture of industrious wretchedness.' In Wordsworth such an experience helped to confirm the revolutionary spirit. In Southey it turned loyalty back to England." Southey's part in the romantic scheme of pantisocracy is brought out distinctly, and the practical reasons for his withdrawal, while Coleridge was still skirting "the precipices of distempered sleep," are stated clearly, if with a little too much repetition. This vice of repetition, with an occasional plethora of useless details, is the weakness of the book, a weakness not uncommon in such treatises. Particularly in dealing with the sources of Southey's poems, the need of appearing learned leads the author now and then into the bog of tautological pedantry. In the larger matters of literary criticism, Dr. Haller is sound, if not brilliant; if he errs, it is certainly not on the side of unduly magnifying the importance of his author. Perhaps a little more appreciation might be shown of the joys of bookishness, although this is a theme belonging more emphatically to the later years of Southey's life. We should like to hope that Dr. Haller, in his own maturer years, would continue his study of an author who, after all, stands for something distinct in English letters.

QUESTIONS of fundamental importance in political theory are reopened for discussion in Harold J. Laski's

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"Studies in the Problems of Sovereignty" (Yale University Press; $2.50 net). Starting with the postulate that our ideas on the nature and basis of sovereignty must be made clear before we can have a workable theory of the state, the author proceeds to a comprehensive and careful analysis of the relation of sovereignty to the control not only of action but of opinion, and particularly to the control of religious opinion or belief. To this end he has studied with great diligence the ecclesiastical history of the nineteenth century, noting the extent to which disruptive forces have been marshalled as a protest against the assumed right of sovereign authorities to control the consciences of men. Mr. Laski rejects, of course, the Hegelian theory of the sovereign state as an all-highest organism, and ranges himself with the English school of political philosophy, now headed by Dr. J. N. Figgis, in placing the state within the category of corporate entities, differing perhaps in rank, but not in species, from ordinary corporations as we know them. The acceptance of this doctrine would have, as one of its results, the almost entire recasting of orthodox political theory. That might be no misfortune. At any rate, Mr. Laski has done his part both in making clear his own tentative ideas and in presenting the historical data upon which they are based. This book, moreover, is not to be his last word on the subject. There is an intimation in its preface that the author has more ammunition in his bandolier, and that in due course it will be hurled at Hegelian trenches.

A THIRD volume of the Harvard Studies in Romance Languages contains "Four Essays" by the late Murray A. Potter, prepared for publication by some of his colleagues in the Harvard Romance Department ($1.25 net). One need invoke no proverb to justify fair speech: the essays carry their own commendation. They are comprehensive and patient in scholarship, and they are eminently readable. The first three deal with Petrarch, as Author, as Man, as Critic and Reader. Renaissance Latin was to Professor Potter, as his graduate students well know, a tongue as familiar and as full of life as the vernacular; and these essays draw their special value from the fact that they reflect an alert individual study of the rich-veined mass of Petrarch's Latin verse and prose. The essay presents most entertainingly the Horse as an Epic Character. Its pages attest the abundance and the variety of the material Professor Potter had collected: he had planned a treatise upon this theme. Steeds of many lands and of many types are gathered and called by name—Arabian, Greek, Russian, French, Persian, Irish, Norse, Spanish, German. Some are faithful and helpful, but merely equine; others are creatures protean and altogether marvellous. Repeated traits and linking anecdotes fill the swift review. The essay ends with fuller accounts of four favorites: Marchegai, of the *Aiol;* Bayard, the Siberian Sib, and Sharatz, the horse of Marko Kralyevich.

"THE Battle with Tuberculosis and How to Win It" (Lippincott; $1.50 net), by D. MacDougall King, bears the sub-title, "A Book for the Patient and His Friends." The author writes as one who, attacked by the disease, has won the battle and desires to help others, not only through a recital of his experiences, but by emphasizing the why and wherefore of modern treatment. This latter point of view he stresses in the statement of his convictions that the great number of deaths occur, not because the disease is terribly virulent, but because the majority of patients do not understand, or even begin to comprehend, the significance of the reasons underlying the only treatment that will bring success. Throughout the book, he attempts to set forth in simple language the fundamental scientific facts which help to answer the patient's constant query, "Why must I do this?" The chapter headings follow the military terminology of the title of the book; thus the first chapter deals with The Enemy, the tubercle bacillus; the second with The Defence Forces, that is, the natural resistance of the subject of the disease, and so on through twenty-six chapters. Under Choosing the Battle Grounds, the questions of climate and residence are discussed, and under The Commissariat the problems of diet. This arrangement focusses the attention of the reader upon the special subject-matter discussed, and emphasizes the principle every physician believes is the chief factor in the cure of tuberculosis—the idea of combat on the part of the patient. "Earnestness, not worry; perseverance, not luxury; and grit, not ease, win the day."

FOR the military reader there are small items of interest in "The Note-Book of an Intelligence Officer" from the versatile pen of Eric Fisher Wood (Century; $1.75 net): but he will turn from the pages into which he was inveigled by the technical promise conveyed in the title with a keen sense of disappointment. For the lay reader Mr. Wood has dressed up sundry experiences with London officialdom and the British army in an entertaining style, but even here the chief impression derived is the importance the author continually places upon his own fortuitous presence at the right hand of the various powers with whom he maintained familiar contact. There is no mistaking the inspirer of the book. To Lord Northcliffe, aspirant to Clemenceau's title of "wrecker of cabinets," the author is indebted for these favors, and he offers praise *ad nauseam.* The reader is duly impressed with all the intimate details of the newspaper king's personal characteristics, the power of his dominion at the centre of the British Empire. In "his famous green Rolls-Royce limousine" Lord Northcliffe whirls Mr. Wood to a conference with Premier Lloyd George, the upshot of which, we gather, is that previously Lord Northcliffe had been impressed with the need of bringing before the American public the full story of England's effort in the war, in order to counteract the impression current in this country of an inarticulate, blundering nation. All of which is most commendable. But the author never fails to remind us that the real spring in British effort, the heroic, vilified, and self-sacrificing gadfly, is the genius whose omnipotent press recently appointed him the successor to Mr. Balfour in this country's contacts with her British ally. Thus we are doubly grateful for those pages that give us glimpses of Britain's war economies, and a rather vivid, compensating picture of the Battle of Arras.

THE terrible indictment of German militarism continues, but we have come to separate the irresponsible charges from those soberly and carefully stated by men of international integrity. The Bryce report was one of those that commended itself to the world as uninspired by malice or partisan propaganda. The latest brochure is from a Belgian, and the evident restraint of passion is not its least virtue. Emile Cammaerts in "Through the

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Bars" (Lane; 75 cents) has stated in succinct terms the various indignities and the irreparable injuries that his unfortunate country and people have suffered from Prussian militarism during the three years of occupation. The systematic methods by which the Prussian military oligarchy succeeded in inflaming their legions with rumors of *francs-tireurs*, poisoned wells, etc., as they swept through the supine country, the subsequent enslavement of laborers, are calmly discussed, and are fortified by chapter and verse at the hands of a scholar. The cartoons from the mordant pencil of the irrepressible Louis Raemaekers adequately support the indictments of the text.

National Miniatures

Richard F. Pettigrew

APPARENTLY the person least concerned about the indictment of Richard Franklin Pettigrew for sedition is Pettigrew himself. This has always been his attitude. When he was Senator from South Dakota he was almost continually in hot water about something, emerging from one pool only to jump into another. It seemed to be a distinguishing feature of his life-programme to get himself abused, and when his enemies were most savage with him his face took on its nearest approach to a real smile. In so corrupt and venal a world, what place was there for so pure a statesman as he, except on the off-side of things? Coming to Washington in 1895 as a Republican, he took advantage of the free-silver coinage controversy to switch over to a Populist-Democratic combination, and from that time his warfare upon McKinley, Roosevelt, and a large share of the Republican membership of the Senate was unremitting. By 1900 he was ready to demand a new party, as none then in the field was bitter enough against Hanna-ism. By 1901 he was unwilling to vote to confirm the appointment of a son of Justice Harlan to the Attorney-Generalship of Porto Rico, or approve the military promotion of a son of Justice McKenna, objecting on principle to any effort by the President to influence the opinions of the Supreme Court! By 1902 he was ready to contrast Roosevelt with Hanna to the former's disparagement, and to venture a half-prophecy that Hanna would be nominated next time for President because, forsooth, he "had overcome in a remarkable degree the prejudices the public felt against him" and now enjoyed the confidence of the business men of the country. In 1904, though chosen a delegate to the Democratic national convention as a supporter of Hearst, he practically bolted the party because it yielded so tamely to the dictation of Belmont and Hill and nominated Parker instead of Bryan.

Little was heard of the variegated politics of the gentleman for some years thereafter, though occasional reports of lucky stock speculations drifted into the newspapers. There is nothing surprising in the character of his present resurgence, for, with all the great forces of civilization massed on one side of the war, he would defy precedent if he did not record himself in opposition to so gigantic a monopoly!

As a combatant in debate, Pettigrew took his chief delight in sinking pitfalls and luring his adversaries into them. One day he asked unanimous consent to have printed as a Senate document a pamphlet containing sundry choice extracts from the sayings of one or two great Populists; and in order to show the general character of the material, he read from a manuscript a few sentences about the relations of labor and capital. Before he had proceeded far, Senator Hale, of Maine, interrupted him to inquire sarcastically who was the author of all this wisdom. Pettigrew did not answer, but dived into his paper again and read a few reflections on the way political parties change, with an illustrative story of two men who fought each other so hard that each fought himself out of his own coat and into the other fellow's.

"Who is the author of these wise sayings?" Hale interrupted again.

"Abraham Lincoln," said Pettigrew, and paused significantly before going on to read some arguments about the limitations on the powers of the President. Between extracts he would pause occasionally to express anew his hope that no Senator would object to the printing of the pamphlet. The older Senators ignored this, but one of less experience presently fell into the trap and raised an objection. Pettigrew, smiling grimly, folded his manuscript and laid it aside with the comment:

"In a body like this, which prints all sorts of things by all sorts of men, it is eminently fitting that there should be objection to printing the views of a man like Lincoln!"

"I had no fault to find with anything of Mr. Lincoln's," protested the crestfallen objector; "the parts I wished to rule out were those you said were by eminent Populists."

"The eminent Populists who have provoked the animosity of the Senator," sneered Pettigrew, "were George Washington and Thomas Jefferson."

Only once, as far as I can remember, was Pettigrew ever completely silenced in a Senate debate, and then it was not a fellow Senator, but Dame Nature, who did it. He had been pouring out a characteristic volley of invective against the tariff selfishness of New England and Pennsylvania, when one of the Connecticut Senators retorted with a contemptuous reference to an item for which Pettigrew had labored hard, designed to protect a mineral deposit recently discovered in South Dakota. Pettigrew turned upon him with every sign of rage, and began a diatribe against the great trusts and the high-tariff Senators who did their bidding, when suddenly, between

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sentences, his articulation failed; tongue and lips moved without emitting a sound, and he sank into his seat, his hands vainly beating on the arms of his chair. He was led to the cloakroom and a doctor was summoned, who diagnosed the trouble as a blood-clot on the brain. A few hours' entire rest and freedom from excitement, however, restored him.

It is doubtful whether, when sharpest in his denunciations of Hanna, Pettigrew realized just how much of a fight he was inviting. Hanna endured the attacks quietly for a little; but one day his patience seemed to have reached its limit, and he responded with a speech in which he accused his assailant of hypocrisy, treachery, and other sins and shortcomings, winding up with the threat that in the next campaign he should go upon the stump and exchange personalities with Pettigrew. Bending lower and lower across his desk till he almost touched his enemy, who sat directly in front of him, and his utterance and manner growing more and more intense, he concluded: "I will let him tell what he knows about me, and then"—with pointed pauses between the remaining words—"and then—I—will—tell—what—I—know—about—him!"

He kept his word. That autumn he went up into South Dakota and trailed Pettigrew everywhere, tearing him figuratively limb from limb. Pettigrew's career in the Senate came to a dead stop with the following spring; but his appreciation of Hanna's real strength took on a vividness from that day which it had never known before.

TATTLER

Reviews of Plays

BECQUE AND MERIMEE AT THE VIEUX COLOMBIER

THE second bill of the Théâtre du Vieux Colombier is a delight—a delight for the eyes as well as for the mind. I shall speak later of Copeau's stage-setting and costumes; our immediate attention is required by a question raised in the review of the preceding bill: can this company present with equal soundness and skill plays of very different types?

So far as can be judged from this second programme, the answer is an incontestable affirmative. Becque's "Navette," first given at the Gymnase in 1878, is a one-act play in which figure the five A's—Antonia, the woman; her three admirers, Alfred, Arthur, and Armand, and the maid Adèle. Like a shuttle (whence the name), Antonia weaves in and out among the men, giving up the first for the second, then listening to the advances of the third, only to return once more to the first. Nevertheless the play is neither hilarious nor sentimental. Clever it certainly is, and moderately amusing; but its essential quality is not to be found in these external things. Within this framework one discerns a purpose, an ideal; for Henry Becque is one of those dramatists who have given a new direction to the development of the French drama. Four years after "La Navette," he put on the stage "Les Corbeaux," and three years later still, "La Parisienne." In the first, the partner and the creditors of a dead man prey, without the slightest compunction, upon the wife and daughters he left behind; in the second, the characters of a *ménage à trois* are so moved by considerations of orderliness, of reciprocal obligations, and of what I might almost call family unity, that they reveal no sense of the immorality of their situation. Through these plays, Becque became the master whom succeeding dramatists have honored as the first to depict in their true sombreness situations and modes of life on which former writers had thrown a false glamour. And the little one-acter "La Navette" holds promise of these two more serious works.

Antonia is not witty, vivacious, nor alluring. Her admirers, though different from each other, are, with one possible exception, equally commonplace. Weak of purpose, incapable of disinterestedness even in their love, they consider only their petty rights, their purses, and their personal satisfaction. Of romance, they have not a trace. The excellence of the play lies in its sobriety and in the artistic treatment that makes us willing to consider the drabness of the situation. Boredom and the commonplace presented in such a way as to compel our attention, such is the definition of this little work; and as such the actors play it. They who have put so much dash into the "Fourberies de Scapin" are even bold enough to drag their acting here. It takes courage such as few possess to-day to interpret a play with such sincerity; but this courage is a proof of the highest appreciation of the actor's duty.

Flippant, rich in color, transporting us into an exotic atmosphere where only the commonplace is untrue and only the frivolous counts, the next play on the programme is very different from "La Navette." This is Mérimée's "Le Carrosse du Saint Sacrement." Don Andrès is Viceroy of Lima. Gouty, luxurious, quick-tempered, this *bon vivant* casts off his responsibilities with the nonchalance befitting the typical grandee of old, decadent Spain. He cares only for an actress, Périchole. He chortles over her pranks and he delights in her unconventionality, growing angry only when he suspects that he is not alone to possess her favors. How this arch beauty Périchole, appearing in all the loveliness of sumptuous apparel, weans him from his suspicion and obtains, besides, his gilded coach with which to outshine the contemptuous high-born ladies of the town, this is the story that Mérimée puts before us—this, and the fact that her beauty is not without its effect, either, upon the stately and gracious bishop to whose church she finally gives the coach.

Included in the second edition (1830) of the "Théâtre de Clara Gazul," this playlet seems a little gem of romantic levity. But much of our pleasure is undoubtedly due to Gournac's capital rendering of Don Andrès, to Mme. Bogaert's Périchole, and to the very beautiful setting and costumes.

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For the third play of the evening, Copeau returns to Molière. The "Fourberies" of the last bill, especially the rôle of Scapin, was played in the manner of the most highly developed acting of the old *farceurs*. "La Jalousie du Barbouillé," however, takes us back to a more rudimentary stage of their art. Based on an old tale, already used by Boccaccio, this farce is the first extant work of the French master. It is plebeian and coarse, with much of the boisterous fun of the mediæval populace. The characters are generalizations of the most elementary sort; and it is fitting, as well as historically correct, that they should be painted and dressed rather as puppets than as individuals. Le Barbouillé himself, as the name requires, is so coated with paint that his face is covered as with a mask. Noise, horse-play, and "go" are part and parcel of the play; and the actors give us all that. But they bring out, also, the broad lines of its caricature, the directness of its dialogue, and the remarkable speed and sureness with which Molière, even at this early date, develops an amusing situation. We laugh heartily and are not ashamed of our laughter; for the performance gives us an exhilarating sensation of health, energy, and animal spirits. A. G. H. SPIERS.

"THE GIPSY TRAIL"

ROBERT HOUSUM, author of this play at the Plymouth, has shown what can be done with materials ready to the hand of every playwright, how the fancies of Shaw, Synge, Barrie can be made into something new and charming. The heroine, tired of her conventional lover, longs for an outbreak of romance. The young man, always willing to oblige, arranges a splendidly conventional kidnapping, with his grandmother as chaperone and an old Irish housekeeper to do the cooking. Unfortunately for him, however, he allows a fascinating Irish boy adventurer—recipe: a dash of Shaw, a heaping tablespoonful of Synge, and a pinch of Barrie—to do the kidnapping for him. The girl lives up to what an audience that was shocked years ago by "Man and Superman" would expect of a masterful young woman, annexes the Irish playboy by allowing him to make the longest proposal speech on record since the days of Anne's Tanner. After various flutters, Irish Michael comes to time and brings all his certificates of eligibility to his future father-in-law. The play was acted with just the right amount of "drag" to give it an amusing air of unreality. A.

THE WASHINGTON SQUARE PLAYERS.

THE Washington Square Players have become catholic. Accused in the past of running to an extreme of radicalism, they have taken to offsetting the grim and outspoken by the sugared and romantic. The opening piece in their new bill at the Comedy is an idyllic study of neighborly love in a rural community engendered by a crisis in the life of one of them. The sketch is so slight and the motives are so simply drawn that comment is unnecessary. The second number on the programme is graver in tone, though still not much more than a theme in outline. The picture of a woman in the middle years, married to a man much her junior, who in this instance preys upon her earnings as dramatic critic, serves to bring out the pathos in the situation of women too old to resist doting upon worthless youths.

The most pretentious contribution is Theodore Dreiser's "The Girl in the Coffin," a drab bit of realism which handles a tragic episode in a factory town. It presents the picture of a father whose attractive daughter has been dishonored and has subsequently died from an operation. The author's emphasis, as might be expected, is not placed upon that tragic feature, for he says explicitly that a girl is not ruined in an affair in which she has loved. What his interpretation of the material is it would be hard to say, unless he means that the father's grief, though human and normal, should not be allowed to interfere with his activities as a benefactor of humanity. This is seemingly enforced by the fact that the man who finally prevails upon him to throw aside his sorrow and address a labor meeting turns out to be the girl's lover. The play, which was well acted, has, in its present form, little meaning either for life or for art. It is the only example this season of a play written by an American which relies upon material untouched by fancy. Yet it is unlike the drama of exposure to which we have frequently referred. That was wholesome in the sense that it attempted, when sincere, to combat, however crudely, certain evils in our social and political fabric. This, on the other hand, insinuates a dangerous doctrine while ostensibly bent upon a minute study of a humble life. The evening's entertainment is concluded by a grotesque pantomime founded upon Maya legends. F.

Ditson's Musical Library

One Hundred Songs by Ten Masters. Edited by Henry T. Finck. 2 vols. Boston: Oliver Ditson Co. $3.

THE Musicians' Library, published by the Oliver Ditson Co., includes a dozen volumes of songs by the great masters, each being represented by his forty or fifty best songs, edited and commented on by specialists. The editor-in-chief is William Arms Fisher, himself one of our best song-writers. Believing that the five hundred or more songs included in this Library are more than most singers, amateur or professional, can cope with, he conceived the plan of bringing out in two volumes the one hundred very best songs of ten masters. Opinions naturally differ as to which ten songs of each master are his best; but Mr. Fisher cooperated with the editor of these two volumes, Henry T. Finck, in making the choice, and most musicians will doubtless endorse their selections. In the cases of Schubert, Franz, and Grieg, it would be possible, Mr. Finck remarks, to "'duplicate the best ten,' as an Irishman might say," and for this reason he is inclined to rate them as the three greatest of all song-writers.

The composers included besides these three are Schumann, Rubinstein, Jensen, Brahms, Tchaikovsky, Wolf, and Strauss. Liszt is not included chiefly because "most of his superb songs are too difficult in both the voice and piano parts for amateurs, for whom this collection is intended quite as much as for professionals." Hugo Wolf, on the other hand, though, in the editor's opinion, not one of the greatest song-writers, is included because he heads a school of composition much in vogue to-day: "the school which subordinates vocal melody to declamation and makes the poet as important as the composer; often, indeed, much more so." The songs are printed on good paper in large type and each one is individually commented on by the editor, who also provides biographical sketches.

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How the New Railway Plans Would Work

WHEN the Interstate Commerce Commission last week proposed their alternative plans for war-time operation of the railways—unified control in the hands of a managers' committee, with anti-combination laws suspended, or Government control—some questions of fact arose at once. How would the two plans work? What would be the practical differences in operation between the two? In what respect do last week's recommendations differ from ordinary operation of the roads? These questions have been uppermost.

During the past thirty years, the basic idea of all railway regulation has been to compel and stimulate competition. As a result, to-day, competing lines cannot consolidate; railways operating in any given territory cannot form pools to regulate distribution of business; any shipper has a legal right to name the route over which his freight must go. The Commission's proposals are to change all this, under stress of war-time exigency, and to get the huge volume of war-time freight transported quickly. How would this be effected?

If the plan first named by the Commission is adopted, the War Board might, for instance, use two single-track competing lines as a double-track system, sending possibly all eastbound freight and passenger business over one road, and all westbound over the other, thus eliminating all costly and unavoidable delays in passing of trains on single-track systems. But the joint committee of management could also select arbitrarily and regardless of the shipper's wish the road which should carry any consignment of urgently needed fuel, food, or manufacture. This would at present be of doubtful legality; yet in the existing emergency it might save much time in transportation and avoid much congestion. Labor, locomotives, freight cars, supplies, and materials could be transferred arbitrarily from one road's use to another's. One company might be ordered to use another's terminal. Even earnings might be allotted on a stipulated ratio of distribution.

If Congress should decide that Government operation was best, the railways would still be operated by the same managers and officers as now, but the Government would be in the position of direct authority, as has been the case in England since September, 1914. This exercise of war powers, and the temporary suspension of private control, would apparently of itself supersede both Federal and State restrictive laws. It might have interesting results with labor. Even before the war, the French Government, which owns the railways, stopped a railway strike which threatened the national defence plans by calling the train-hands into army service.

The Commission proposed that, under the alternative plan, money needed by the railways for expenditure on plant—which they cannot raise by sale of securities while the war loans are absorbing all the money market's capital—"should be provided from the Government Treasury." The Chairman of the Senate Railway Committee last week estimated $1,000,000,000 as the immediate needs of the roads for purchasing new equipment, terminals, and trackage. The estimate is rather surprisingly large—more particularly in view of the fact that, with mills in the steel trade overworked as they are on Government orders, railway men have lately declared that even if they had the money, they could not get their orders placed.

In all reasonable probability the figure is far too high. It somewhat recalls the late James J. Hill's declaration of 1906, that a billion dollars a year ought forthwith to be spent on new railway facilities, in default of which, commerce would be "paralyzed, which, long-continued, would mean slow death." No such sum was ever raised; yet the railways are now moving twice the tonnage of 1906. This week, the Chairman of the Railway War Board has declared, in a letter to the Senate Committee, that the railways "do not ask one billion dollars from the Government or anybody else at the moment," because "they could not invest it in plant and equipment if they had it."

Yet Government assistance may be necessary, if only to finance maturing railway obligations; and what the effect of these Government advances would be on outstanding railway shares and bonds is one of the larger questions. The Stock Exchange seems to have been baffled by it. All other things being equal, it would apparently tend to help existing railway bonds, because credit of the companies would be guaranteed, their earnings increased, and their efficiency insured. In so far as the expedient meant Government guarantee for railway securities issued to take up maturing short-term obligations of the companies, it would probably result in the willing extension of those obligations by the holders. But in so far as larger Government loans were necessitated, the already pressing competition for available supplies of capital would be intensified. Its influence on existing railway stocks would be exerted partly through the same competition for capital, partly through the outlook for more favorable working conditions in the industry, and partly, doubtless, by the varying conjecture as to what the new relations mean to the future status of railway ownership and operation.

R. L. BARNUM.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

MISCELLANEOUS

Alexander, H. N. On Two Fronts. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Smith, B. Days of Discovery. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Stephens, W. Madame Adam. Dutton. $4 net.

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Summary of the News

FOLLOWING upon the suggestion contained in the President's message on the opening of the Sixty-fifth Congress, the House has approved of the declaration of war against Austria-Hungary. The President signed the bill after it had passed the House with one dissenting vote, that of the Socialist member, Meyer London, of New York. While, as the President pointed out, the logic of events demands similar declarations against the other allies of Germany, namely, Bulgaria and Turkey, the House followed his lead in this matter. In the voting for war against the Dual Empire, Senator La Follette was absent, but Miss Rankin, though of pacifist convictions, sustained the measure. As a result, the country will now face the problem of interning and sequestering all Austrian subjects, many of whom are enlisted in the army, navy, and other official services.

THE Navy Department announces the loss by submarine on December 6, in British waters, of the destroyer Jacob Jones. Out of her complement of about 110 officers and men, according to the latest reports from Vice-Admiral Sims in London, only 44 men were saved, while one is said to have been taken prisoner by the attacking submarine. The destroyer was one of the latest type, and was engaged in patrol work off the British coast when sunk by the submarine. Further details are expected to follow.

SUCH devastation as spread over the port of Halifax, N. S., last Thursday morning, through the explosion in harbor of a munitions vessel, has touched the sympathy of this country, and help is being rushed from various points. The loss of life and property is appalling. At this time of writing the list of dead has reached 4,000, while 1,000 bodies have so far been recovered. According to the pilot of the munitions ship, there was a confusion in signals in the Narrows, where the French ship Mont Blanc, carrying the munitions, was rammed by the Norwegian relief ship Imo. The munitions vessel, in addition to her deadly cargo, was carrying a deck-load of benzine, which burst into flame and brought about the catastrophe. The full weight of the explosion was felt in the Richmond section of Halifax, which adjoins the Narrows. Here the entire district was devastated by fire, as were the various piers along the waterfront, and thousands have been made homeless. The prompt dispatch of relief from this country was hindered by a blizzard which held up trains, and the continuance of severe weather has since added to the severity of suffering in the stricken city. Relief trains are now arriving, and the city has issued an appeal for $25,000,000 to aid the victims as well as an urgent request for light building materials. The Governor-General of Canada has expressed Canadian gratitude to Washington for the prompt response made by this country to the call for help.

THE capture of Jerusalem by the British under Gen. Allenby was announced last Monday in the House of Commons. After being surrounded on all sides by the British, the Turks surrendered the city.

A LISBON dispatch of December 9 announces the overthrow of the Republican Ministry, after three days of disorder, and the institution of a provisional Government by the rebels. Premier Costa has been arrested, and his place has been taken by Dr. Sidonio Paes, former Portuguese Minister to Germany, with the title of President of the Provisional Government.

CONFLICTING rumors are still current as to the progress of the peace negotiations recently instituted between the Bolshevik régime in Russia and the Berlin Foreign Office. Rumania is now reported as being anxious to join the armistice. It is certain, however, that an abstention of hostilities now obtains along the entire line in Volhynia and Galicia, and that the Germans have withdrawn large quantities of troops from these sectors for use against the British and Italians. Meanwhile, the Duma, recently deposed from power by the present régime, has issued an appeal to the Allies for continued support, and disavowed all diplomatic and political actions taken by the Bolsheviki. Revolutionary measures continue to mark the actions of the Bolshevik Foreign Minister, Trotzky, among them being a wholesale dismissal of all Russian Legations abroad, and a disavowal of all foreign debts. It is reported that Lenine, the Bolshevik ruler, has decided to release all Teutonic prisoners, while the Petrograd journal *Retch* says that already German soldiers in uniform have been seen in the streets of the capital. In spite of the setback experienced by the Loyalists, which involved the defeat and lynching of the loyalist general, Dukhonin, the great Cossack party is still the mainstay of the Conservatives, and Gen. Kaledines, assisted by Gens. Kornilov and Dutov, is reported to be in possession of vital sources of supply, like food and coal, and has declared his intention to contest the Bolshevik supremacy.

MEANWHILE rumor is also current regarding the desire of the Austrians for peace, reinforced in certain significant statements made by Emperor Charles. The tension between Austria and Hungary appears to be growing dangerous, and a large demonstration in Vienna, demanding peace at any price, is reported to have taken place. One of the reasons assigned for the publicity given these demonstrations of disunion is the deep disappointment in Austria over the results of the Italian drive.

IN Italy, on the Asiago Plateau, the Teutonic forces continue to forge ahead at terrific cost, indicating somewhat the desperation of their offensive now faced with the difficulties of a winter campaign. A total of 15,000 prisoners is claimed by Berlin during these attacks. Rome admits a withdrawal from the eastern edge of the plateau, where the Teutonic forces are attempting to drive a wedge between Monte Tondarecar and Monte Badenecche, with Valstagna, on the Brenta, for their objective. The Italians are stubbornly contesting the advance, and are confident of holding the enemy, whose effort, Rome thinks, has reached its maximum of intensity. Italian writers suggest that the Allies might inflict such a defeat on the Central Powers on this front as to effect a decision in the war. Especially successful have the Italians been in holding the Franella and Gadena Passes, through which the enemy is trying

(*Continued on next page.*)

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(*Continued from preceding page.*)

to gain access to the valley of the Brenta and the plain below. In this fighting Italian air-warfare has been a strong factor.

LONDON announces the successful termination of the war in East Africa, the last surviving German forces having taken refuge in Portuguese territory, where they will soon be dealt with. This marks the passing into British and Belgian hands of Germany's African possessions, now that the last of the German dependencies has succumbed in the war. Togoland and the South-West colony fell to the Franco-British and South African forces in 1914. The East African has been the most difficult of the campaigns in the Dark Continent, owing to the great mobility of the forces engaged, and to the difficult nature of the country where most of the engagements took place.

FIGHTING on the western front has centred upon the scene of the British victory before Cambrai. Close upon this success, the Germans made an equally surprising counter-attack, and in such force as to compel the British under Gen. Byng to surrender the important Bourlon Wood sector. That the German command attached importance to this advance by the British is amply borne out by the continuance of the most fierce attacks on the British lines, in which the Germans have suffered losses as prodigally as at Verdun. Fighting has been incessant and unremitting in intensity since last week's counter-attack. Field-Marshal von Hindenburg is now reported to be in personal command of the enemy at Cambrai, and an immense concentration of German forces is going on, indicating the inception of a great drive. One of the reasons attached to these great preparations is the favorable impression created in Germany by the recent German success on the Cambrai front, which is said to have overshadowed in popular esteem the gains made by the Teutonic forces in Italy. The British have reinforced Gen. Byng, and a tremendous struggle is scheduled for the immediate future.

A REVIVAL of activity is noted along the Bulgarian front, where the Allied forces are being attacked with great intensity. Simultaneously from Austrian sources have come the rumors that Bulgaria is carrying on a systematic extermination of the Servians. The report gains credence owing to the fact that the news is contained in both Hungarian and Austrian official complaints that the extermination has bereft the mine region of Majnapek, whence the Dual Monarchy derives its supplies of pyrites, of all available labor. Both Austrian and Hungarian Deputies have protested against the Bulgarian measures, involving, it is said, the transportation of Servian women and children to Asia Minor.

THE Government has issued at Washington the first of a series of official monographs relating to "German War Practices." The volume of this title has been printed for free distribution through the Committee on Public Information, and deals with the treatment of civilians based on data derived from both German and American sources. These surveys of German "frightfulness" supplement the official report issued by the British under the editorship of Lord Bryce.

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